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A

DESCRIPTION

OF

CEYLON,

CONTAINING

AN ACCOUNT OF THE COUNTRY, INHABITANTS,

AND

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS;

WITH

NARRATIVES OF A TOUR ROUND THE ISLAND IN 1800, THE CAMPAIGN IN CANDY IN 1803, AND A JOURNEY TO RAMISSERAM IN 1804.

ILLUSTRATED BY

Twenty-five Engravings from Original Drawings.

By the Reverend JAMES CORDINER, A.M.

LATE CHAPLAIN TO THE GARRISON OF COLUMBO.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

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PREFACE.

The reader is warned not to expect in these volumes a complete description of Ceylon. A work of that nature remains still to be published, and it is hoped will one day proceed from talents equal to the task. The following pages contain the observations of an inexperienced and unscientific traveller, and are merely presented to the public as a small addition to the information which they already possess concerning an interesting island.

The author resided in Ceylon five years (from 1799 to 1804) as chaplain to the garrison of Columbo, and principal of all the schools in the island, during which time he was the only clergyman of the church of England in any of its settlements.

The manner of insnaring and taming the wild elephants, the mode of diving for the pearl oysters, the stripping of the cinnamon bark, and the process of collecting natural salt, are all described from actual observation and authentic documents. The plates exhibit the costume of the country, the most striking scenes along the coasts of the island, and some expressive features of the inland districts, executed by eminent artists from drawings made on the spot.

Ramisseram, a small island under the dominion of the East-India company, lying out of the usual route of travellers, has never before been particularly described, and is but little known to many persons who are well acquainted with all our other eastern territories.

The narrative of the campaign of the British forces in the Candian territories in 1803 was compiled at Columbo from the information of the principal civil servants of government, and an extensive correspondence with respectable

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officers in the field. To it is added a medical report concerning the health of the troops in the month of April of the same year by the superintendent of hospitals in Ceylon, whose observations throw a clear light on the nature of the climate and the diseases to which it is subject.

An embassy to Candy in 1800 illustrates the curious ceremonies practised at that court; and extracts from the old history written by captain Robert Knox in 1681 exhibit a faithful picture of that country in its present state.

But after all the advantages which the writer has enjoyed, his work will not appear without errors and imperfections. Any information therefore which may be conveyed to the publishers will be gratefully acknowledged; and if the Description of Ceylon should undergo a second edition, every mistake which is pointed out will be carefully corrected.

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Vol. I. Page 95, line 3, for were, *read* wear.—p. 139, line 13, prefer, *read* profess.—p. 158, line 9, D'Oütreir, *read* D'Outrein.—p. 171, line 19, pandaras, *read* pandarus.—p. 185, line 3, *read* waving tops of.—p. 200, line 22, gently, *read* gentle.—p. 217, line 18, wide, *read* wine.—p. 264, line 6, lad, *read* land.—p. 313, line 3, nigher, *read* higher.—p. 370, line 13, laburnam, *read* laburnum.—p. 384, line 23, tubula, *read* tubular.

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J. Bye sculp.t Duke Str. Smithfiel

PART FIRST.

DESCRIPTION OF CEYLON.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF CEYLON—SITUATION—NAME—EUROPEAN CONQUESTS—APPEARANCE—ADAM'S PEAK—RIVERS—HARBOURS—CLIMATE—SOIL—FOSSILS—ROADS—REVENUE—GOVERNMENT—TENURES—EXTRACTS FROM KNOX'S HISTORY.

CEYLON is an island in the Indian Ocean, situate at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, between five degrees forty-nine minutes and nine degrees fifty minutes of north latitude, and between seventy-nine degrees thirty minutes and eighty-one degrees fifty minutes of longitude east of Greenwich.

It is said by Strabo to be as large as Britain*. Onesicritus, according to the same author, declared it to be in size upwards of five thousand stadia, not distinguishing

* Strabo, Lib. II. p. 72. Paris, 1620.

its length from its breadth; which observation would lead one to suppose that Strabo himself was more correctly informed of its real shape, which resembles a pear. Pliny says that it was first discovered to be an island by Onesicritus, captain of the fleet of Alexander the Great. Eratosthenes, according to Pliny, gives the dimensions of it as being seven thousand stadia in breadth, and five thousand in length.

It is singular that Pomponius Mela, who wrote in the reign of Claudius, should express a doubt whether Taprobane was an island, or the beginning of a new world, as it was not known to have been circumnavigated*. It is related by Pliny (lib. vi. cap. 24.) that a freedman of Annius Plocamus who rented the farms of the Red Sea, was driven into the Indian Ocean, while collecting the rents of his patron, and having reached the port of *Hippuri* in this island, brought to Rome a more certain account of it in the reign of the same Claudius, probably after Pomponius Mela had concluded his work. He declared that the *Septemtrio*, or Great Bear, was not visible on the island, which, if true, would prove that he was farther to the south than any part of Ceylon now existing. Indeed it is a tradition of the natives (supported, as it is said, by astronomical observations) that the island is much diminished in size from what it was formerly; which tradition is par-

* Pomp. M. L. III. C. 7.

ticularly mentioned by Marco Paolo a Venetian, who visited the east in the thirteenth century.

Our countryman Sir John Maundevile, who travelled nearly about the same time with Paolo, relates very accurately that it is eight hundred miles in circumference*.

* The following extract from his work is added, as a curiosity which may gratify some readers:

"The Voiage and Travaile of Sir John Maundevile, Kt. which treateth of the Way to Hieusalem; and of Marvayles of Inde, with other Ilands and Countryes.—Now published entire from an Original MS. in the Cottonian Library about 300 years old.—London: Printed for Woodman and Lyon, in Russel Street, Covent Garden, and C. Davis, in Hatton Garden. 1727."

Cap. XVIII. p. 238. "Fro this Lond men gon to another yle, that is clept Silha: and it is welle a 800 Myles aboute. In that Lond is full mochelle waste: for it is full of serpentes, of Dragouns, and of Cockadrilles; that no man dar duelle there. Theise Cocodrilles ben Serpentes, zalowe and rayed aboven, and han 4 feet and schorte Thyes and grete Nayles, as Clees or Talouns: and there been some that han 5 Fadme in lengthe, and sume of 6 and of 8, and of 10: and when thei gon be places, that ben gravelly, it semethe as though men hadde drawen a grete Tree thorghe the gravelly place. And there ben also many wylde Bestes, and namelyche of Olifauntes. In that yle is a gret Mountayne; and in mydd place of the Mount, is a gret lake in a fulle fair Pleyne, and there is gret plentee of Watre. And thei of the Contree seyn, that Adam and Eve wepten upon that Mount an 100 Zeer, whan thei weren dryven out of Paradys. And that Watre, thei seyn, is of here Teres: for so much Watre thei wepten, that made the forseyde Lake. And in the botme of that Lake, men fynden many precious Stones and grete Perles. In that Lake growen many Reedes and grete Cannes: and there with inne ben many Cocodrilles and Serpentes and grete watre Leches."

Cap. XXX. p. 364. "Toward the Est partye of Prestre Johnes Lond, is an yle gode and gret, that men clepen Taprobane, that is fulle noble, and full fructuous: and the Kyng thereof is fulle ryche, and is undre the obeyssance of Prestre John. And alle weys there thei make hire Kyng be Eleccyoun. In that Ile ben 2 Someres and 2 Wyntres; and men hervesten the corn twyes a Zeer. And in alle the Cesouns of the Zeer

Its general direction is nearly north and south: the length from Dondra-head to Point Pedro is two hundred and eighty miles: the greatest breadth, from Columbo to Komary, one hundred and fifty. On the south and east sides it is washed by the great Indian ocean: on the west it is bounded by the gulph of Manaar, which separates it from the coast of Coromandel: the north point stretches into the bay of Bengal; and the southern extremity extends nearly two degrees beyond Cape Comorin. The nearest passage to the Indian peninsula is by the small islands of Manaar, and Ramisseram, commonly called Rama's, or Adam's Bridge, and measures nearly thirty miles.

The island, which forms the subject of the present work, is the Tabrobane of the Greeks and Romans, although they have differed widely in their descriptions of it. Concerning its ancient state, and the revolutions which it has undergone, history affords us but little precise information. Prior to the age of Alexander the Great, who died three hundred and twenty-three years before the birth of Christ, the name of Tabrobane was unknown in Europe. From that period

ben the Gardynes florischt. There dwellen gode folk and resonable, and manye Cristene men amonges hem, that ben so riche, that thei wyte not what to done with their Godes. Of olde tyme, whan men passed from the Lond of Prestre John unto that yle, men maden ordynance for to pass by Schippe, 23 dayes or more: but now men passen by Schippe in 7 dayes. And men may see the botme of the See in many places: for it is not fulle depe."

"Sir John Maundevile, was a native of the town of S. Albans, and died at Leege in the yeere 1371."

until the landing of the Portuguese on the island in the year of our Lord 1505, the various accounts transmitted concerning it are often confused, and sometimes contradictory. One description, representing it as stretching several degrees on each side of the equator, accords not with the situation of Ceylon, but is applicable to the larger island of Sumatra, which forms the western boundary of the eastern Archipelago. Every thing that relates to this island is well described in Marsden's elegant History. Doubts have even been entertained whether Tabrobane was a name given to any particular island, or only a general title expressing the ultimate limits of ancient discovery. The Sanscrit name of Ceylon, however, is Tapobon, a word implying the wilderness of prayer; the hallowed groves consecrated to devotion, whither pious pilgrims repaired from the farthest corners of India to offer gifts and adorations to the unknown God.

This name is also derived by Mr. Duncan, in the Asiatic Researches, from *Tapoo Rawan*, the island of Rawan the Giant, who, according to the Indian mythology, fought with Rama on this very spot.

The island is called by the natives *Lanca** (or the Holy Land), which is the name it still bears, in the Cingalese

* "Antiquissima itaque hujus insulæ appellatio, si vera narrant Taprobanensium annales, videtur fuisse *Lamcab*, vel *Lamca*. Terram sanctam id interpretantur Malabarri Taprobanensium aborigines." *Is. Vos. Obser. Ad Pomp. Melam, Lib.* iii. *Cap.* vii.

and Malabar languages, on the government paper currency. The names of *Ilanare* and *Tenasserim*, which have also been given to it, are supposed to be of Sanscrit origin, and to denote *Plenty*. That of *Palesimundo*, which is mentioned by Ptolemy, has not yet found a satisfactory derivation. It is said by this author, and by others subsequent to him, to be a corruption of *Salice* (Σάλικη); and the inhabitants are said to have been called *Salæ* (Σάλαι). That of *Zeilan*, or Ceylon, by which it is now known, is derived most probably from *Sinhal* the Lions, the name by which the natives of the island are still denominated as *Cingalese*, from the Indian word *Sing*, a Lion. From Singal, or *Sinhal-Dwipa*, the Lion-Island, may have been derived the *Sielendiba* (Σιελενδιβα) of Cosmas Indopleustes, who wrote in the seventh century, and the *Serendib* of the Arabians, by which name it is called by all the nations which profess the religion of Mahomet.

After Don Lorenzo Almeyda reached the shores of Ceylon in 1505, the Portuguese maintained a superiority in the island for one hundred and fifty-three years; during which time they were engaged in constant struggles with the natives, and latterly with the Dutch, who succeeded in expelling them in the year 1658. The dominion of the States General continued, with little interruption, until the years 1795 and 1796, when the coasts of Ceylon were finally taken possession of by the British arms.

"By the fifth article of the treaty of Amiens in 1802, the Batavian republic ceded and guaranteed, in full property and sovereignty, to his Britannic Majesty, all the possessions and establishments in the island, which, previous to the war, belonged to the republic of the United Provinces, or to the Dutch East-India Company."

The territory which now belongs to Great Britain forms a belt round the island, extending, in some places, not more than six, in others thirty, and on the northern side even sixty, miles into the interior country. The inland provinces, cut off from all communication with the sea, and occupying the greater part of the island, are still retained by the king of Candy, whose capital is situate in the centre of his dominions.

Almost the whole circumference of the coast is lined with a sandy beach, and a broad border of cocoa-nut trees, behind which are seen double and treble ranges of lofty mountains covered with wood. The south-east coast, viewed from the sea, is particularly picturesque and romantic. The country, in the highest degree mountainous, presents hills beyond hills, many beautiful and verdant, others huge and rocky, of extraordinary shapes, resembling ruined battlements, ancient castles, and lofty pyramids. The northern parts of the island are flat, and frequently indented with shallow inlets of the sea.

The interior, or Candian territories, contain many hun-

dreds of mountains, some of which, as well as the extensive plains between them, are highly cultivated. The grounds about the capital, bounded by mountains, rocks, and woods, are beautifully varied, and exhibit a flourishing state of agriculture. Access to the country is difficult, on account of its natural barriers: and the greater part of it continues still to be very imperfectly known. The insalubrity of the climate, and the almost constant hostilities of the Portuguese, Dutch, and English with the natives, have, in a great measure, prevented the researches of travellers. Excepting the lines of three or four different rugged paths to Candy, our acquaintance with the nature of the inland districts continues to be extremely limited. From what has been seen, however, they appear equal in point of culture to any part of the sea coasts.

The highest and most conspicuous mountain in the island is Adam's Peak, lying sixty miles east by south of Columbo. It is of a conical shape, and is seen distinctly by those who sail along the south-west coast for an extent of one hundred and fifty miles. From Chilauw it bears south-east: from Dondra-head north by west. Two lesser peaks rise from the same mountain, and, when viewed from some parts of the interior, all three appear of equal height. Notwithstanding the obvious and not distant situation of this mountain, no European subject of Great Britain has ever visited it. It is generally believed, however, that there

exists upon the top of it a carved stone, called an impression of a foot of Buddha, in some respects similar to those in the kingdoms of Ava and Siam.

Ceylon is well supplied with lakes and rivers, which facilitate inland navigation, and might be rendered highly serviceable to the purposes of agriculture. But owing to the luxuriant crops of fruits, and the deficiency of population, the art of husbandry is little practised.

The four principal rivers take their rise from Adam's Peak, and the adjacent hills. These are the *Mahavilla-ganga*, the *Walluwy* or *Neel-ganga*, the *Callu-ganga*, and the *Calany-ganga*, or *Mootwal*. They are, in general, rapid but smooth streams; and some of them are navigable with small boats to a considerable distance up the country. Amongst the lesser rivers are those of Dandigam, Kaymelle, Chilauw, Putlam, Aripo, Cockly, Gindura. Other considerable streams are accounted branches of the larger rivers. Bridges of masonry are not yet known in the island.

The only harbours of any consequence in Ceylon are those of Trincomallee and Point de Galle, the former one of the noblest in the world. An account of them shall be given when we come to visit those parts of the island in which they are situate.

The heat of the climate is not, by any means, so intense as might be expected in a situation so near the equator. In general, it is more temperate and uniform than in any

part of the neighbouring peninsula. From Chilauw southward to Tengalle on the west coast, the air is salubrious and delightful, the medium heat being about 81 degrees; Farenheit's thermometer, at the most sultry hours, generally fluctuating between 82° and 84°, and seldom being seen, in the shade, above 86 degrees. The coolness of the air in these parts proceeds, in a great measure, from the circumstance of the country being an island, the regular land and sea breezes, the perpetuity of luxuriant verdure, the moistness of soil, and the frequency of rain. In the other parts of the coast, where the soil is more arid, and not so well watered, the heat is considerably greater. In the inland districts, which are often marshy and abounding in wood, the air is, generally, unhealthy, and, in some places, particularly noxious. It is frequently moist, vitiated, and confined between mountains and forests. The variation of temperature between the night and day is remarkably great; Farenheit's thermometer often ranging, in the course of nine hours, from sixty-nine to ninety-nine degrees. Dense and heavy fogs rise every evening and morning betwixt the hills. Hot sultry days are succeeded by damp chilly nights. In these situations, a person does not feel comfortable, after the sun is down, without the aid of blankets; and the *jungle*, or hill-fever, of the worst kind, is a common consequence of exposure to the influence of the climate.

The days and nights are nearly equal throughout the year: the atmosphere is almost always serene: the moonlight is clearer than in England: and the sun may be seen rise and set almost every day in his brightest lustre.

Thunder and lightning are frequent in all parts of the island, but seldom attended with destructive consequences. The highest house in the fort of Columbo, however, was struck by lightning in the year 1805, when part of the roof and one of the walls was considerably injured. Slight earthquakes are sometimes felt, but are never attended with violent convulsions, or fatal effects.

Ceylon partakes of the advantage of both the periodical rains, which fertilize the eastern and western coasts of the Indian peninsula, and the seasons divide exactly in its centre, where a ridge of lofty mountains forms their boundaries, and bisects the island. Whilst torrents of rain fall on the south and west sides, the north and east experience an unclouded sky, accompanied with all the fervour of the torrid zone. When the latter are obscured, the former are again enlivened with uninterrupted sunshine.

The north-east monsoon blows from November to April, and sometimes to May, when the south-west wind commences, and continues during the rest of the year.

Excepting a short period at the first setting in of the monsoons, when these winds rage with greatest violence, regular land and sea breezes prevail, for a certain number

of hours every day, along all the coasts. The sea breeze usually sets in, after some hours of calm, about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and continues until near six in the evening. The land breeze commences about seven, prevails through the night, and gradually dies away towards eight in the morning.

The action of the morning sun upon the earth having warmed and rarefied the air above it, currents of cooler air rush in from the sea to restore the equilibrium. The sea imbibing heat more gradually, but more deeply, and retaining it for a longer time, produces a similar effect, in an opposite direction, in the evening.

May it not be considered as an instance of the wisdom of Providence in the established laws of nature, that the heat of the climate is itself the cause of producing those refreshing breezes which allay its fervour?

The foundation of the soil is generally a deep layer of reddish clay, mixed with sandy and ferruginous particles. In the country it is called by the name of *cabooc* stone. When first broken up it is as soft as a stiff clay, and as easily cut into pieces; but, after being exposed to the heat of the sun, it becomes indurated and brittle, and is used as stone for the purposes of building. This foundation of the soil is covered with strata of black mould, and white sand, the latter of which forms the surface. Its fertility is indeed remarkable, almost every where produc-

ing grass, shrubs, and trees of a lively and perpetual verdure. Hard rock is found on some parts of the coast, particularly at Point de Galle, and Trincomallee, at which place are the only considerable cliffs. All the shores are lined, under water, with ledges of white coral of various species.

It has been an opinion very generally entertained, that Ceylon once formed a part of the Indian peninsula, from which it is now so narrowly divided. The probability of this supposition is strengthened by the similarity of soil and productions in the two countries, particularly at the points which approach nearest to one another, as well as by the shallowness of the water, and the numerous shoals in the channel which separates them.

The earth abounds in useful minerals and other fossil productions. Iron ore is extremely plentiful. Mica, or glimmer, is found in large laminated masses. Shivers of it are used in ornamenting *talipot* umbrellas. Plumbago is found with mica at the foot of mountains, in clay and red earth, most frequently at a considerable depth: but is sometimes met with by itself in a dry soil. Crystallized pyrites, which contains a little copper, is manufactured into buttons. Quicksilver has been discovered in small quantities. The Candian territories are said to contain gold, but the working of the mines, or gathering of the dust, is prohibited by the prudent policy of the king.

Precious stones are plentiful, and found of upwards of twenty different sorts, but the greater part of them are of an inferior quality. They are often met with in the beds of rivers, whither they are washed down from the mountains. The Moors carry on a great traffic in selling them. There is no real diamond in the island, but a white tourmalin, a very common and cheap stone, is sold under that name. It is not perfectly transparent, and is considered, by Thunberg, as a pale coloured topaz. It is commonly distinguished by the title of the Ceylon or Matura diamond. The gems of greatest value are the cat's eye and emerald: but of these the qualities are various: and many of them, particularly of the former, may be purchased at a trifling rate. A perfect cat's eye, however, of the size of a hazel nut, is worth fifteen hundred rix-dollars of Ceylon currency, or one hundred and fifty pounds sterling. It is a pseudo opal: a white ray runs across its diameter on one side; and, moving from one end to the other, meets the eye in whichever way it is turned.

All the coloured gems of Ceylon are found of various shades, and are said to be more or less ripe according to the gradation in which they appear. The ruby is seen of every tinge, from the palest glow of pink, to blood red. It is seldom of any considerable size, most commonly only equal to a small particle of gravel, and seldom exceeding the bulk of a grain of barley. The amethyst is a violet-

coloured mountain crystal. The cinnamon stone is a garnet, which derives its name from the resemblance which its colour bears to the oil of the finest cinnamon. Robals are small transparent garnets of a dark red colour, which, as well as hyacinths, are often made to pass for rubies. To these may be added the red, blue, and green tourmalin, yellow and greenish topaz, garnet, blue, green, and white or water sapphire, agate, sardonyx, jasper, white, yellow, brown, and black crystal. Other varieties of crystal and quartz are sold under the name of precious stones. Those which have been mentioned here fell under the observation of Dr. Thunberg, who gives a detailed and correct account of them in his "Travels."

Strictly speaking, there are no roads in Ceylon: and wheeled carriages can only be used in the neighbourhood of the larger European settlements, which are all situate on the sea coasts. In travelling, foot paths are sometimes discernible, but never any broad beaten way, regularly formed, marked with the tracks of wheels, and bounded by walls or ditches. This want gives a striking peculiarity to the aspect of the country, which cannot be easily represented to the mind of a person who has never travelled in a wild and woody region destitute of roads. In some places trees and shrubs have been cleared away to open a passage for the traveller, but vegetation is so rapid and general that the appearance of art is not discernible, and it is often with diffi-

culty that a palanquin is pushed forward through the surrounding thickets. Sometimes the line of travelling leads over natural meadows, sometimes over rugged strata of clay, sometimes through beds of deep and heavy sand; but no where is the route distinctly perceived: and a journey in Ceylon may be compared to an excursion in a large park or garden where there are no artificial walks.

The revenue of Ceylon, although much greater now than under the Dutch administration, is not sufficient to defray the expence of the various establishments placed there by the British government. Captain Percival makes, by far, too wide an estimate, when he rates the annual income at £1,200,000 sterling. At present it does not exceed £226,600, while the common expenditure of the island amounts to £330,000, occasioning a yearly charge on his Majesty's treasury of £103,400. In this state of the revenue, the produce of every source is included, allowing £40,000 sterling, as the average gain by pearl fisheries. The East India company pays £60,000 yearly for cinnamon. The rest of the revenue is derived from rents of land, markets, and fisheries; taxes on Moors and *Chitties*, arrack-shops, gambling, cock-fighting, and wearing of jewels; duties on the importation of Indian cloths, and articles from China and Europe; duties on the exportation of areka-nuts, coffee, cardamoms, pepper, arrack, *coiar*, and timber.

The land-tax is paid sometimes in produce, and some-

times in money. The greater part of the land cultivated for rice, pays to government the tythe of the crop it yields. Gardens pay a tax in money. Some lands pay no impost either in produce or money, the possessors being exempted on account of their *cast*.

In the year 1802, six hundred and twenty-nine small vessels cleared out from the port of Columbo. The quantity of areka-nuts exported amounted to 16,358 *ammonams*, the duty paid on them to £12,268 sterling. The calico or cloth imported amounted to 5,991 *corges*, the value of which was £51,650, and the duty £3,874. The total sum received at the custom-house, that year, was £19,160 sterling, and the expence of collecting it came to £683. The same year, 137,337 bags of rice, and 191,175 *parrhas* of *paddee (rice in the husk)* were imported duty free. The state of these circumstances is, probably now, not very different from what it was then. The quantity of rice annually imported under the Dutch government amounted to eighty thousand bags.

For some years after Ceylon fell into the possession of the English, it was managed under the control of the East India company: but from the beginning of the year 1802, it became entirely a royal government, and was placed under the immediate direction of his Majesty's ministers, who now regulate the affairs of its settlements. The island, on account of local advantages, is an acquisition to the British empire,

highly worthy of all the attention which has hitherto been paid to it. Every view which can be taken of our interests in the east, points out its value and importance. To render it impregnable is the most certain step which can be taken, to insure the permanent security of our other Indian possessions: and if a liberal encouragement shall continue to be afforded to agriculture and commerce, it may be expected ultimately to contribute to the wealth of the United Kingdom.

In Ceylon, as in feudal countries, the origin of all individual landed property proceeded from the Sovereign, who apportioned his territories among those who were to guard his person and protect his dominions. This has been the case from time immemorial; and, what may appear singular in a savage country, there was a mixture of civil and military authority, which the Portuguese, the first conquerors of the kingdom, followed, and improved upon. The same system was maintained by the Dutch, with this difference, that they joined both authorities in one headman, although the distinction was supported in those who executed the civil and military duties under him.

Anciently the civil authority of each *corle*, or district, was administered by a *coral*, who received instructions from the *dessauve* or collector, and executed his orders through the medium of *vidans*, and *attoo-corals*, or little corals. The coral was magistrate within the bounds of his jurisdiction, and had power to decide upon cases of landed property,

with an appeal, however, to the *dessauve*, should the parties consider themselves aggrieved. His criminal jurisdiction extended only to flagellation: and, in capital cases, the delinquent was tried at Columbo. Under the authority of the coral also the revenue was collected.

The head of the military service was the modelear, under whom were mohundrums, arratchies, canganies, and lascoreens. Their duties were entirely military, excepting that the lascoreens were obliged to assist in conveying timber to the rivers, and in catching elephants.

The civil and military officers were remunerated for their services either by the privilege of possessing their own lands to a certain extent duty free, or by being authorized to receive a certain portion of the government share from the lands of others. This license in either case was called *accomodesan.*

On the death of the holder of such *accomodesan*, or on his not being able to perform the duty of his situation, the right conferred on him reverted to government, and a new appointment of another person with a like privilege took place. Sometimes it was given to the son or heir of the last holder when deserving, but this depended upon the option of government.

The *lascoreens* had certain portions of land allotted to them, which they held free of all duty to government, for performing the services assigned them: and the land so held was called *waddawassan*, or *deveel parveny*.

This land devolved on their heirs male, under the condition of service, but reverted to government either on a total failure of male heirs in a direct or collateral line, or on the holder or his heirs being unable or unwilling to perform the prescribed duty.

The Dutch governor Falk, finding that the division of civil and military authority betwixt the *coral* and modelear led to constant disputes respecting the extent of their rights and duties, and also wishing to reduce the expences of government, joined both civil and military powers in the person of the modelear, abolishing altogether the appointment of coral, but retaining the other subordinate civil servants for the performance of the civil duties attached to their situations.

No grants of land are permitted to be made by government to British subjects, or European settlers in the island. The purchase of lands by them is likewise forbidden; but this restriction does not extend to the town, fort, and district of Columbo.

The history of Ceylon written one hundred and twenty-six years ago by our countryman captain Robert Knox is so authentic, and the book is now so scarce, that it may gratify many readers to be put in possession of a few extracts from it.

The Ann frigate, of London, in the service of the English East-India Company, having lost her mainmast in a gale

of wind, put into the bay of *Cotiar* to refit, in the month of November, 1659. Knox, and fifteen others of the ship's company, who had gone on shore to trade with the natives, were seized by a party of Candians, and carried up the country as prisoners, but, in other respects, they were well treated.

Knox was detained in the inland territory for the space of nearly twenty years, and it is that part of the island which he chiefly describes. It is the least known to us; and he had a better opportunity of being acquainted with it than any modern traveller. This book did not fall into my hands until after my own description was finished: and it is a matter of curiosity to observe how much they agree when they treat of the same subjects.

Whatever extracts are made from it in this work may be considered as entitled to implicit credit.

Extracts from Knox's History.

" An Historical Relation of the Island of Ceylon in the East Indies. By Robert Knox, a captive there for nearly twenty years. London, printed 1681."

" The inland country is divided into greater or less shares or parts. The greater divisions give me leave to call *pro-*

vinces, and the less *counties*, as resembling ours in England, though not altogether so big. On the north parts lyes the province of *Nourecalava*, consisting of five lesser divisions or counties; the province also of *Hotcourly* (signifying seven counties): it contains seven counties. On the eastward is *Mautaly*, containing three counties. There are also lying on that side *Tammanquoel*, *Bintana*, *Vellas*, *Paunoa*, these are single counties. *Ouvah* also containing three counties. In this province are two and thirty of the king's captains dwelling with their soldiers. In the midland within those already mentioned lye *Wallaponahoy* (it signifies fifty holes or valves which describe the nature of it, being nothing but hills and valleys), *Poncipot*, (signifying five hundred soldiers). *Goddaponahoy*, (signifying fifty pieces of dry land). *Hevoihattay*, (signifying sixty soldiers). *Cotemull Horsepot*, (four hundred soldiers). *Tunponahoy*, (three fifties). *Oudanour* (it signifies the upper city), where I lived last and had land. *Tattanour* (the lower city), in which stands the royal and chief city *Cande*. These two counties I last named have the pre-eminence of all the rest in the land. They are most populous and fruitful. The inhabitants thereof are the chief and principal men: insomuch that it is a usual saying among them, that *if they want a king, they may take any man, of either of these two counties, from the plow, and wash the dirt off him, and he by reason of his quality and descent is fit to be a king.* And

they have this peculiar privilege, that none may be their governour, but one born in their own country. These ly to the westward that follow, *Oudipollat*, *Dolusbaug*, *Hotter-acourly*, containing four counties; *Portaloon*, *Tuncourly*, containing three counties; *Cuttiar*. Which last, together with *Batticalaw*, and a part of *Tuncourly*, the *Hollander* took from the king during my being there. There are about ten or twelve more unnamed, next bordering on the coasts, which are under the *Hollander*. All these provinces and counties, excepting six, *Tammanquod*, *Vellas*, *Paunoa*, *Hotteracourly*, *Hotcourly*, and *Neurecalava*, ly upon hills fruitful and well watered: and therefore they are called in one word *Conde Uda*, which signifies *on top of the hills*, and the king is styled the king of *Conde Uda*.

"All these counties are divided each from other by great woods, which none may fell, being preserved for fortifications. In most of them there are watches kept constantly, but in troublesome times in all.

"The land is full of hills, but exceedingly well watered, there being many pure and clear rivers running through them. Which falling down about their lands is a very great benefit for the countrey in respect of their rice, their chief sustenance."——"The main river of all is called *Mavela-gonga*, which proceeds out of the mountain called *Adam's Peak:* it runs through the whole land northward, and falls

into the sea at *Trenkimalay*. It may be an arrow's flight over in bredth, but not navigable by reason of the many rocks and great falls in it.

"It is so deep, that unless it be mighty dry weather, a man cannot wade over it, unless towards the head of it. They use little *canoues* to pass over it: but there are no bridges built over it, being so broad, and the stream in time of rains (which in this country are very great) runs so high, that they cannot make them, neither if they could, would it be permitted; for the king careth not to make his countrey easie to travel, but desires to keep it intricate. This river runs within a mile or less of the city of *Cande*. In some places of it full of rocks, in others clear for three or four miles.

"On the south side of Conde Uda is an hill, supposed to be the highest on this island, called in the Chingulay language, *Hamalell;* but by the Portugueze and the European nations, *Adam's Peak*. It is sharp like a sugar-loaf, and on the top a flat stone with the print of a foot like a man's on it, but far bigger, being about two foot long. The people of this land count it meritorious to go and worship this impression; and generally about their new year, which is in March, they, men, women, and children, go up this vast and high mountain to worship. Out of this mountain arise many fine rivers, which run through the

land, some to the westward, some to the southward, and the main river, viz. *Mavelagonga* before mentioned, to the northward.

"This kingdom of *Conde Uda* is strongly fortified by nature. For which way soever you enter into it you must ascend vast and high mountains, and descend little or nothing. The wayes are many, but very narrow, so that but one can go abreast. The hills are covered with wood and great rocks, so that it is scarcely possible to get up any where, but only in the paths, in all which there are gates made of thorns, the one at the bottom, the other at the top of the hills, and two or three men always set to watch, who are to examine all that come and go, and see what they carry, that letters may not be conveyed, nor prisoners or other slaves run away.

"The one part of this island differs very much from the other, both in respect of the seasons and the soyl. For when the westwardly winds blow, then it rains on the west side of the island; and that is the season for them to till their grounds. At the same time on the east side is very fair and dry weather, and the time of their harvest. On the contrary, when the east winds blow, it is tilling time for those that inhabit the east parts, and harvest to those on the west. So that harvest is here in one part or other all the year long. These rains, and this dry weather do part themselves about the middle of the land; as oftentimes I have

seen, being on the one side of a mountain called *Cauragas hing*, rainy and wet weather, and as soon as I came on the other, dry, and so exceedingly hot, that I could scarcely walk on the ground, being, as the manner there is, barefoot.

"It rains far more in the high-lands of *Conde Uda*, than in the low-lands beneath the hills. The north end of this island is much subject to dry weather."

CHAPTER II.

DESCRIPTION OF COLUMBO—THE FORT—ROAD—LANDING-PLACE—TREES—HOUSES—VERANDAS—SLAVE-ISLAND—PETTAH—SUBURBS—HAMLETS—BATHING—WOLFENDAL CHURCH—BAZAR—WATER—RIDES—VILLAS—MILAGRE'—FISHING-BOATS—SCENERY—CLIMATE.

COLUMBO, the seat of government, and capital of the British settlements in Ceylon, lies on the west side of the island in 7° of north latitude, and 79° 48′ of longitude east of Greenwich. Its fort is composed of seven bastions of different sizes, connected by intervening curtains, and defended by three hundred pieces of heavy cannon. It measures one mile and a quarter in circumference, and occupies a situation almost entirely insulated; the sea encompassing two-thirds of the works, and the other third being bounded by an extensive lake of fresh water. A communication is opened into the country on two sides by narrow necks of land, or causeways, running betwixt the sea and the lake, by the cutting of which the fortress would be converted into an island. From the nature of its position,

and there being no rising ground which commands it, Columbo is a place of considerable strength, and, if well garrisoned, capable of making a vigorous resistance. It however surrendered, by capitulation, to the British arms on the 15th of February, 1796.

Four of the bastions look towards the sea: the three others face the lake, and command the causeways leading into the fort. The situation of it is cool, pleasant, and healthy: and in these respects it forms a more comfortable residence for a garrison than any other military station in India.

A projecting rock, on which two batteries are erected, affords shelter to a small semicircular bay on the north side of the fort. Here the landing-place is rendered pleasant and convenient by a wooden quay extending about one hundred feet into the sea, and answering well for loading and unloading boats. The depth of water is not sufficient to allow sloops or large *donies* to lie alongside of the quay: those not exceeding one hundred tons burden ride at anchor at only the distance of a cable's length from it: and smaller vessels moor close along the shore. Large ships seldom come within this road: and when they do, they keep at a greater distance. A bar of sand, on some parts of which the water is not ten feet deep, extends from the projecting rock across the bay. As the channel, in which it can be crossed, is liable to shift, and not easily discovered, ships commonly

anchor about a mile beyond it: and only in the fine weather of the safe season venture to go within the bar. The outer road affords secure anchorage for no more than six months in the year, from the beginning of October to the end of March, when the wind blows from the north-east off the land. During the other six months, the south-west wind blows from the sea upon the shore: and, in that season, a ship seldom looks into the road. Strictly speaking, there is no harbour at Columbo; for the little bay, which affords occasional shelter to small craft, does not deserve that name. The production of cinnamon is the only commercial advantage which belongs to the capital of the Ceylon coasts.

Near to the wharf stand the master-attendant's, or harbour-master's, office, and the sea custom-house. On leaving these we walk through an arched passage, and ascend a gentle rising ground, which leads to another gateway opening into a square green, railed in for the garrison parade in the north corner of the fort. On the left hand appears the town-major's office, overlooking the inner road crowded with small vessels. On the right is seen the principal street, running from north to south the length of the town, and terminated by a lofty gateway and belfry. On one side of the parade-ground stands a church of a heavy appearance, without a roof; on the other, a house built for the supreme court of judicature, ornamented with a light

cupola, and situate in the centre of a row of public offices.

The internal appearance of the fort is extremely beautiful, the streets being broad, straight, regularly planned, intersecting one another at right angles, and shaded on each side by double rows of trees. The houses are neatly built, fronted with *verandas*, or colonnades on pavements raised several feet from the ground, before which are plots of grass and flowers. The trees belong to the species of the *portia*, or *hibiscus populneus;* they are clothed with a dense foliage evergreen, and, at certain seasons, adorned with yellow blossoms of the form and size of the largest tulips. The branches of these trees, which shoot upwards like those of the willow, are pruned close to the stem once a year, after which they look truncated and naked: but vegetation is so rapid, that in less than six months their former growth is completely renewed.

While the *verandas* or piazzas, by their sloping roofs, exclude the glare of the sun from the houses through the day, they afford a comfortable apartment for enjoying the refreshing air of the evening. Some of these covered walks, by consent of the owners, communicate from one house to another; but in general they are divided by wooden balustrades. The partitions appear objectionable to a stranger, as they prevent walking on a smooth pavement, under a connected shade, through the whole town. But as

the walk runs close to the houses, people passing and repassing would be an annoyance to the inhabitants: and few individuals choose to sacrifice their own private comfort to the public convenience.

The houses are built of stone, clay, and lime, and roofed with curved tiles. These are placed loosely on the rafters without any cement, but connected together with sufficient firmness by being laid double. The tiles, which form the first covering, lie with their concave sides uppermost: those placed above them are reversed, so that one laid convexly falls into two of the concave, uniting them together, and thus excluding rain. The roofs require to be frequently repaired: and, in order to render them water tight, the tiles are turned once a year. On this occasion all those that are broken or otherwise damaged are removed, and new ones substituted in their stead.

The houses, in general, have only one floor. There are a few, however, of two stories, which are much esteemed, and command charming prospects. The plan, according to which the houses are laid out, is almost uniform over the island. The pavement of the *veranda* is ascended by a flight of from six to twelve steps. A passage, which is sometimes large enough to form a comfortable sitting-room, runs through the middle of the house. On each side of this is one apartment, and behind these a hall as long as the house, which may be from forty to one hundred feet. From

the centre of this a portico or back *veranda* projects: and from each side of it, ranges of offices extend at right angles to the main building. These are terminated by a wall, and enclose an oblong court, which is paved with bricks, and contains a well of indifferent water. The two nearest rooms in the out-houses, that is, one on each side, are sometimes used as bed-chambers. The others afford a kitchen, cellars, pantries, and stables. A back-door is generally attached to the end of the court: but many of the smaller houses are destitute of that convenience: and when the inhabitant of one of them keeps a horse, he enters at the same door with his master, passing through the vestibule and dining-room, on the way to his stable. This is far from being an uncommon sight, either at Columbo or any other of the towns in Ceylon.

In many houses there is no ceiling, and nothing is seen above but the beams and bare tiles. The roofs, however, are lofty. Persons who study neatness have white calico spread over them, and a flounce of the same materials put round in the place of a cornice.

On the arrival of the English, all the houses had glass windows; but many of these have been taken out, and Venetian blinds substituted in their place.

The long halls are the places where guests are entertained at dinner. Many of them afford sufficient accommodation for parties of from fifty to eighty persons. From the roof

or ceiling is suspended a *punka*, for the purpose of ventilation when there is no natural breeze. It is an oblong frame of wood, covered with white muslin: and is hung by ropes along the centre of the room, the lower part of it being about six feet above the floor. The dining table is placed under it, so that the perpendicular frame, if lowered down, would bisect it lengthwise: and every person present partakes of its influence. Cords are fastened to two or more cross bars in the frame, and united to one rope in the centre, by which the *punka* is drawn backward and forward with a motion like that of a pendulum. Sometimes the rope runs over a pulley fixed at the top of a door in the centre of the hall, on the outside of which stands the servant who keeps the ventilator in motion. The pulley is chiefly useful for keeping up the rope, and preventing it from touching the heads of any of the company. Either with or without it, one man moves the machine with very little exertion. A stranger on his first arrival in the country, while sitting at table, and feeling the influence of this fan, naturally imagines that a refreshing breeze is entering at the open windows. This luxury was first introduced into Ceylon, in 1799, by Lieut. General Hay Macdowall, on his arrival from Calcutta, and is now adopted by all the English inhabitants. The Portuguese and Dutch bear the heat with greater patience; and having always been solicitous to exclude the natural winds from their houses, they are not inclined to create an

artificial breeze. The rooms are lighted by glass lamps hung from the roof, and chandeliers fixed upon the walls. Owing to the open structure of the houses contrived for the admission of air, candles, and every description of lights, must be surrounded by glass cases, to prevent them from being blown out. These seldom appear upon a gentleman's table, but are placed on stands at a little distance from it. In this manner the room is pleasantly illuminated, and the eyes are not hurt by any glare of light.

The government-house, which fronts the sea on the north side of the fort, is a handsome building of two stories, with two wings of one floor. An arched portico, of a cubical form, open on all sides, and flat roofed, projects from the centre of the building, and leads into a large and lofty vestibule, on each side of which are two excellent rooms. These occupy the length and half the breadth of the principal building: parallel to them, a spacious hall extends about three hundred feet in length, from the one end of the house to the other. The upper story has windows only in the front of the house, and is not at present occupied. Behind the building is a square garden, sunk twenty feet below the common level of the ground, to which a flight of steps descends. It was originally formed as a tank or reservoir of water: in which state it must have had a beautiful appearance. But the stagnant water becoming offensive, it was found necessary to drain it. Rows of buildings extend on

two sides of it at right angles to the house. These form the various offices of government, and likewise afford accommodation for a small troop of cavalry.

The government-house is only used on public occasions, as the roof is worn out and admits the rain. It is the place where the governor gives audience, holds levees, receives ambassadors, and confers honorary distinctions on the natives. It has been employed as the theatre of the most gay and festive amusements; and has also been devoted to the performance of the most serious and solemn duties. The spacious hall was often decorated as a ball-room, and served, at one time, both as a court of judicature and a church. Eight hundred soldiers frequently attended divine service in it. Psalms and anthems were played and sung by the bands of his majesty's regiments, which still supply both vocal and instrumental music.

The church in the fort once had a roof, but owing to the effects of bad masonry it fell down before the English took the place, and has never since been rebuilt. Divine service was for some time performed within its naked walls, at half past six o'clock in the morning; but frequent showers of rain suggested the expedience of using the above-mentioned hall. The floor of the church is covered with grave-stones, under which are vaults, or square compartments, used as places of interment by the principal Dutch families. The coffins are lowered down, and flat

stones are laid across the mouth of the cave, but no earth is thrown in.

The funeral procession of the Dutch governor Van-Anglebeck paraded through the streets of Columbo, by torch-light, on the third of September, 1799. It was attended by a party of mourners in black gowns, all the European gentlemen of the settlement, and a crowd of natives. The body was deposited in the family vault, by the side of that of his wife, whose skeleton was seen through a glass in the cover of the coffin. No burial service was used on the occasion; but when the necessary duty was performed, a crier stood upon a tomb-stone, and proclaimed that nothing more remained to be done, and that the company might retire. Those gentlemen who felt inclined repaired to the house of the deceased, where a large party of ladies was assembled: and the rooms were soon crowded with a mixture of all nations, who spent the evening in drinking various liquors and smoking tobacco. This is the largest and best dwelling-house in the fort of Columbo, and is now occupied by Major-General Right Hon. Thomas Maitland, governor of the island. It is situate in the principal street, and composed of two regular stories. From the upper balcony on one side is an extensive view of the sea, the road, and shipping. On the other is a richer prospect, comprehending the lake, *pettah*, cinnamon plantations, and a wide range of the inland territories bounded by Adam's Peak, and many lesser mountains.

The hospital is a commodious building, and well aired: and the barracks are comfortable; but the prisons do not merit so favourable a description. The powder magazine is a huge and awkward structure, lying along-side of the church, exposed towards the sea, and but ill adapted to the purpose for which it was intended.

Three gates open from the fort towards the sea. Three others communicate with the land; the delft or main gate, which leads to the *pettah*, the south gate, which opens on the road leading to Point de Galle, and a winding sally-port, which communicates, by causeways and bridges, with a rugged peninsula commonly called *Slave-island.* This peninsula divides the lake, and receives the above appellation from having formerly been occupied by slaves, who were employed in the service of the Dutch government. The English, on their arrival, made it a station for the Malay regiment. It contains a mud village, a *bazar*, or market stalls, an excellent parade, and two gentlemen's villas. One of these is built on a spit of land projecting at right angles from the body of the peninsula, and fronting the fort. It is a neat house of two stories, which was erected by the Dutch as a freemasons' lodge, but has now become the property of a private person. The other villa looks towards the sea, and the road leading to Point de Galle. The situations of both are eligible and retired; and their distance from Columbo does not exceed an English mile: but there is no

road by which a carriage can drive to either, without making a circuit of several miles. The common way of going to the first-mentioned villa is through the sally-port, either on foot, on horseback, in a palanquin, along the causeway, or across the lake in a boat. In going to the other it is usual to pass nearly a mile along the south road, until in front of the house, then to turn down to the water's edge, and cross a branch of the lake, which has there the appearance of a river, not being more than thirty yards in breadth.

A little elevated behind this house stands a small-pox hospital, which is now about to be pulled down, the success of vaccine inoculation having superseded the necessity of that prior institution.

The rest of the peninsula is covered with a thick forest of cocoa-nut trees, which approach so near the fort, that our government had it in contemplation to cut them down. This projecting piece of land extends, about two miles, to the most distant part of the winding lake, where it expands into the bosom of the cinnamon plantations, which stretch both to the right and left, and cover a circumference of upwards of twelve miles of the inland country.

The *pettah*, or outer town, is situate a few hundred yards to the eastward of the fort. Part of it encroaches upon the esplanade, and approaches too near to the outworks: but measures have been taken by the British government for removing the houses which come under this description. The

town is neat, clean, regular, and larger than that within the fort. Five streets, each half a mile in length, run parallel to one another; and the same number intersect them at right angles. *Verandas* supported on lofty pillars shade the fronts of the houses, but they want the additional ornament of trees.

In one of the streets stands a large and commodious building of two stories, erected by the Dutch government as an asylum for male and female orphans. The boys were educated here until they attained a proper age for being bound apprentices to trades: the girls generally remained until they were married. Eight years ago, all the boys above eight years of age were removed from this seminary, and placed upon a separate establishment by direction of the governor, the honourable Frederic North, who did not approve of the children of both sexes being lodged in one house. These boys learned to read, write, and speak the English language; and soon acquire the manners and appearance of British children. They now perform the business of clerks in the various offices of the Ceylon government. It is much to be wished that the present and future administrations may continue to regard these valuable institutions with that attention which their importance merits.

The pettah is of a square form, and was formerly defended on the land side by a fortified wall and gate called Kimon's port. The north side is bounded by the sea, the

south by the lake, and the west by the eastern esplanade. On this side, within the limits of the pettah, stands the burial-ground of the settlement. It is an oblong area, which was, not long ago, enclosed on all sides by a stone wall. But while the English camp lay in the neighbourhood of Columbo in February, 1796, the Dutch governor, to divert the attention of the populace, ordered the two sides fronting the fort to be thrown down, and they have not since been rebuilt.

Beyond the pettah many straggling streets extend, in various directions, several miles into the country. The fort is chiefly occupied by English inhabitants; the pettah by Dutch and Portuguese; and the suburbs, which are by far the most populous, by native Cingalese. Including all these, Columbo contains upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants. Perhaps a better idea of the general situation of the place may be conveyed by the annexed plan than by any description which can easily be given.

The houses inhabited by the natives are built on the same plan as those in the fort and pettah, but are considerably lower, and of smaller dimensions. Some of the walls are formed of a double row of stakes wattled together with canes, and having the interstices filled with clay: others are built of stone, and all the roofs are tiled. Most commonly there are one door and two windows in front: and a *veranda* extends along the whole length of the house. Within it, solid

Engraved by J. Eye.

benches of mason-work are raised close to the wall, on which the inhabitants are accustomed to recline. In the same shade women often perform the business of their simple cookery, placing an earthern pot upon two bricks, and lighting a fire of charcoal under it. Every morning they spread cow-dung mixed with water on the earthern floors and steps of the *veranda*, in the same manner as we lay on paint or whiting on a wall, but they use no other pencil than their hands. This practice is general over all India. It lays the dust, soon dries, and gives greater firmness to the floor than any other materials which can easily be procured. In some places women are in the habit of spreading an ointment of the same nature over their face, neck, and arms.

The dwellings of the poorer classes, both on the coast and in the interior of the island, are larger, better constructed, and more comfortable than those of the indigent inhabitants of any other country within the tropics. Many of the hamlets around Madras exhibit the human species in a state of greater poverty and more apparent wretchedness than a person in Europe can easily imagine. Their huts are formed of straw or leaves in the shape of a tent, so small that they must bend to creep into them, and can then only remain in a sitting or sleeping posture. Their situation is still more uncomfortable in the midst of a sandy plain, without a friendly tree, or blade of grass to allay the intense fervour of a burning sun.

On the borders of the lake of Columbo, on the south side of the fort, lies another burial-ground lately enclosed with palisades. It was rendered necessary for the garrison by the uncommon mortality which followed the campaign of 1803. Beyond it is an humble village formed by Bengal *lascars*, natives employed in the service of the artillery. The huts are made of sticks and cocoa-nut leaves, neatly built, laid out in parallel streets, and ornamented with rows of young trees, which give the hamlet an air of comfort. These *lascars* have taken Ceylonese helpmates, and their streets are animated with groups of healthy children, running about in the simplicity of perfect nakedness. About half a mile farther from the fort, on the same road, stands a Cingalese school-house, built of stone and tiled; adjoining to which is the burial-place of the parish of Colpitty, containing a great number of ancient tomb-stones.

On the opposite side of the lake, beyond the eastern esplanade, lies another simple hamlet, of a construction similar to the one above mentioned, likewise the residence of gun *lascars*, pioneers, and Malabar servants belonging to gentlemen of the garrison.

The inhabitants of both these little villages have chosen situations close to the water's edge, for the convenient performance of those ablutions so frequent and necessary in a warm climate.

Bathing in fresh water is a daily practice among the native inhabitants of Columbo, who frequent the lake and canals

in large companies of men, women, and children, and immerse themselves indiscriminately. The women are covered with a sheet from the arm-pits downwards to the ankles: the men have a piece of muslin wrapped round their loins. They stand nearly up to the shoulders in the water, and dipping down a pitcher, lift it up with both hands, and pour the contents of it over the head. This operation they continue in quick succession for the space of half an hour, or longer if they feel inclined. One reason why the natives never bathe in the sea, is their natural timidity and dread of sharks; but, at the same time, they give the preference to fresh water as more conducive both to health and cleanliness. A great inducement to bathing arises from the pleasant sensations and grateful refreshment which it affords. The cold bath, in a warm climate, is nearly as great a luxury as the warm bath in a cold climate: and both may be used for an equal length of time, in their respective regions, without any injury.

The church of Wolfendal, where the Dutch inhabitants attend public worship, is situate on the summit of a gentle rising ground, in the midst of the suburbs, about a mile and a half from the fort. It was built for the use of the Cingalese and Malabar Christians, who still meet in it every Sunday, each congregation assembling at a different hour. It is a neat building, in the form of a cross, with a lofty dome in the centre; and it is furnished with an organ. All the public

fasts and thanksgivings of the English settlement are kept in this church; but it lies at too great a distance to be constantly used by the garrison. When the troops set out at day-break, before they return from morning service the heat is so great as to be extremely uncomfortable: and were they to attend evening prayers they must march from the fort at four o'clock in the afternoon, when the sun is as oppressive as at any hour of the day.

About a mile farther off stands a Portuguese church, for the use of those natives who belong to the Romish communion.

The *bazar*, or market, formerly stood on the high road between the *pettah* and suburbs. It was merely a row of thatched sheds on each side: and much inconvenience arose from a busy crowd being continually collected in so public a situation. The people were exposed to danger from carriages and unruly horses: and the thoroughfare was by no means pleasant to persons whose business did not lead them to market. The *bazar* has therefore been removed to a declivity behind a late house of the governor called Hulfsdorff, on the borders of the canal, and entirely out of the way of common passengers. A regular set of stalls was erected there at the expence of government, and let to the natives. The sheds are ranged in parallel streets, and built of brick and mortar, with neat pillars and tiled roofs. In these, all the necessaries and many of the luxuries of life are daily exposed for sale from sunrise until late at night. But notwith-

standing the superior comfort and convenience of this place, the Columbo merchants retired to it with considerable reluctance. They naturally thought that they had a better chance of vending their commodities in a more public situation. But an absolute prohibition of these articles being sold at any other part of the town removed this objection: and no person has any reason to complain of the change, unless the man who has to walk half a mile farther than he used to do to purchase a measure of rice or a fowl. This inconvenience is not felt by the inhabitants of the fort, for whom a small bazar is constructed in a field between the walls and the sea. A strict police, however, is necessary to enforce obedience to these salutary regulations, and to promote the public advantage. The removal of the market from its former situation has rendered the entrance into the *pettah*, which was before choked up and nauseous, now open and remarkably pleasant, presenting a fine prospect of the smooth lake on one hand, and the ocean on the other.

The water within the fort is brackish, and consequently not used for drinking. Good water must be brought from the distance of one mile and a half. In the Cingalese manner of transportation, two earthen pots are suspended from the opposite ends of an elastic piece of wood, and placed across one shoulder of a man. Women carry pitchers on their heads. Water for the use of the troops is conveyed in skins, or leathern bags, on the backs of bullocks. These are

called *puckawlies*, and a certain number of them is attached to the quarter-master's establishment in every regiment. The water is drawn off through a spigot fixed at one corner of the hide, and thus served out along the lines in whatever quantity is required. It would not, however, be a difficult matter to introduce this necessary of life into the garrison by the superior means of leaden pipes.

There is a great variety of hill and dale in the vicinity of Columbo: and an equal number of delightful rides is probably not to be found, within so small a compass, in any other part of the world. One may make a different round every day in the week, and find many novelties in each excursion. It has been mentioned that roads fit for carriages are confined to the neighbourhood of large towns; and they abound more about the presidency than any other of the settlements. For some of these the inhabitants are indebted to the taste and active abilities of Lieut. General Macdowall, who likewise took pains to set them an example of gardening, which it is to be wished they had industry and talents to imitate.

Few cultivated fields or open meadows are to be seen, the face of the country being chiefly covered with trees; some of which are planted by the natives for the sake of their fruits, and others have been growing in impenetrable forests from time immemorial. But the exuberance of vegetation and endless variety of foliage render the scenery su-

perlatively rich and beautiful. The greater part of the grounds is entirely in a state of nature. Few attempts have been made either to cut down the brushwood, or to give the country the appearance of culture. Even when a road is formed, shrubs spring up upon it so rapidly that if it be neglected for the space of two months the traces of it can hardly be discerned. The province, however, is, beyond a doubt, capable of great improvement by industry, both in beauty and fertility.

Several pleasant rides, of from three to eight miles in extent, are formed by going out at one gate of the fort, traversing the intermediate country, and returning by the other. These afford morning and evening recreation to the ladies and gentlemen of the settlement. The coast stretching to the southward is flat, and several villas are erected along the east side of the road fronting the sea. They are cool and pleasant residences; and the communication between them and the fort is open and airy. The road was formerly a deep loose sand, but is now firm and solid, being laid for upwards of two miles with *cabooc*-stone, which is a mixture of sand and clay admirably adapted for that purpose. The ground to the north-east is more varied, being divided into a number of little mounts, on some of which country seats are built, forming still more delightful places of abode, commanding wider prospects, and a greater diversity of scenery. But in going from the fort to these houses, it is necessary

to pass through the pettah, and a long narrow street of the native town, where vitiated and confined air render part of the ride less agreeable. This road runs in many places close to the sea shore, and proceeds about four miles, when it is interrupted by the *Calany ganga*, at that place called the *Mootwal* river. Here is a ferry, and excellent boats with capacious decks, into which a one-horse carriage is often driven, and conveyed over without being unyoked. The river is not fordable; and a person who is riding merely for pleasure never crosses it. The road runs, for about a quarter of a mile, along the west bank of the river, through a grove of cocoa-nut trees, and then branches off into various walks, all of which lead through hills and dales to the town of Columbo. By continuing a winding excursion towards the south, one may prolong the ride to the length of twelve or fourteen miles, passing through the cinnamon plantations, and returning in the opposite direction to the fort. English villas are built to the northward, here and there, on each side of the road, but at a considerable distance from it, and so situate that they do not at all obstruct the views from one another. Those farther inland are placed on eminences, and those nearer the sea occupy the lower grounds.

Several other roads extend into the country, and take their rise chiefly from one point, at the termination of the *pettah*. One leads to the church of Wolfendal, where it opens into a square, at one corner of which stands a neat

building with an arched portico, erected for the reception of the Candian ambassadors. From this, roads branch off both to the right and left, and others proceed forward farther inland. One road is directed to Hulfsdorff and the *bazar:* another leads to St. Sebastian's, and runs four miles, in a south-east direction, to the village of Cotta: a third terminates at the *grand pass.* This is the name given to another ferry on the Calany *ganga*, about two miles farther up the river than the one formerly mentioned. A fine road runs from it a mile across the country, through a valley of *paddee* fields, and over two wooded hills, after which it joins the north road at right angles. This is one of the most frequented drives; and a ride, in that course, is called, in the phraseology of Columbo, "*round the grand pass.*" All the roads, in their commencement from the pettah, are streets of a straggling village, having houses on each side extending to a considerable distance inland.

At the *grand pass* stands a country seat built by the late Dutch governor Van Anglebeck. Besides a row of offices and a handsome farm-yard, there are two houses of one floor each for the accommodation of the family. These lie parallel to one another, and it is necessary to pass through the first to get to the second, which is raised on an embankment of the river. The stream is seen gliding along from the windows, and is broad, deep, and rapid. The opposite

banks are clothed with thick woods. The situation is pleasant, but low and flat: and the grounds about it are swampy, being employed in the cultivation of rice. In the morning they are covered with thick fogs, whence the place has been accounted unhealthy. General Macdowall and his staff, however, often lived there, for several months at a time, without experiencing any bad consequences. But it is not a situation where an Englishman would choose to build, while so many higher and more eligible spots remain unoccupied.

From this part of the river a navigable canal is cut, extending to the lake of Columbo: from which another canal passes through the streets of the fort, and terminates at the sea-beach. It enters the walls through a low arched passage near the sally-port, and at different parts of it are flights of steps which lead up into the town. The top of the canal at the *grand pass* is constantly crowded with large flat-bottomed boats, which come down from Negumbo with dried fish and roes, shrimps, fire-wood, and other articles. These boats are covered with thatched roofs in the form of huts, and are often the only habitations occupied by the owners and their families. The shed of one of them contains two couches, which are put in for the accommodation of English gentlemen when they go to see the elephant hunts, or to enjoy other rural amusements. A draw-bridge is thrown over the abovementioned part of the canal, and communicates with a re-

tired and beautiful road, extending along the banks of the river in the direction of Hangwell. Three miles above the bridge stands the village of *Kovilawatta*, called by the Dutch *Pannebakkery*, on account of a brick-work, or manufacture of tiles, which is still carried on there.

At Pilligory, on the opposite side of the river, a little higher up than the house of the Dutch governor, the honourable Frederic North built a temporary *bungaloe*, of wooden pillars roofed with cocoa-nut leaves, where he occasionally gave grand entertainments, and gratified his guests with a pleasant variety of scene. The situation is a gentle eminence, perfectly dry, and completely rural, nothing being seen near it but the limpid stream, and its richly wooded and verdant banks. Excellent boats were always ready to carry over the party, and a band of music added gaiety to the other luxuries of the feast.

On many of the roads, particularly on those two, the one leading to the *grand pass*, and the other to Cotta, there are a great many commodious houses inhabited by Dutch and other European families. But they lie, generally, in low and confined situations, close to the road side, choked up with trees, and are by no means so pleasant to live in as those rural dwellings which command views of the sea and skirt the borders of the lake. Where there are no houses there are always large trees on each side of the road, except only in a few open spots, where there are cultivated fields.

The cocoa-nut tree abounds most on the coasts, where but few other species are mingled with it. It predominates also in the more sheltered avenues, which are enriched with a beautiful intermixture of areka, jaggree, jack, bread-fruit, jamboo, cotton, tamarind, and banyan trees.

The first house which was occupied by Mr. North, on his arrival at Columbo, is situate in the fort, and belongs to a Dutch gentleman of the name of Sluisken. It is sufficiently spacious, but has only one floor, and is hot and confined from the vicinity of other buildings.

From this house he removed to Hulfsdorff, a villa about one mile east of the fort. It afforded ample accommodation for himself and a numerous family of friends, as well as every convenience that was requisite for the largest and most splendid entertainments. The situation, however, was by no means favourable. It was shut up by thickets of *jack* and *jamboo* trees, which deprived it of the benefit of the sea breeze; and it had no prospect, but a confined view of a valley of paddee fields, sometimes overflowed with water, and the mountain of Adam's Peak seen through an opening of a deeply-shaded and luxuriant avenue. The back veranda is, perhaps, the most spacious hall of the kind to be seen in India, being upwards of one hundred and fifty feet in length, and so broad that a coach might be driven in it with perfect ease. This was the place allotted for dancing; to render which amusement more agreeable, two stages formed of elastic

boards were raised about one foot or eighteen inches above the stone floor, and railed in to prevent accidents. The extensive range of lofty pillars was decorated with a rich covering of cocoa-nut leaves of pale yellow and dark green colours, disposed in alternate succession. The white cotton roof and the side wall were ornamented with beautiful moss, and illuminated with numerous lamps; rows of which were likewise hung at a distance from the house on the surrounding trees, and gave the scene the appearance of a vast amphitheatre, equally novel and enchanting. In a long veranda on the opposite side of the house, and under three ornamental sheds projecting from the centre, and each end of it, supper tables were laid: and three hundred guests frequently sat down to a sumptuous and animated entertainment. The inner apartments of the house were on these occasions thrown open, provided with card-tables, and appropriated to the pleasure and convenience of the company.

The immense colony of Europeans which Mr. North found at Columbo, and the liberal and social qualities of his disposition, led him to practise an extensive hospitality, and the unaffected kindness and attention with which he treated all descriptions of people created a general attachment to his person.

This house afterwards accommodated two families, those of the agent of revenue and the chaplain to government: and Mr. North then inhabited St. Sebastians, a less splendid

mansion, in a more eligible situation. This, too, lies almost directly east of the fort, of which it commands a full view, being elevated on an open bank projecting into the lake. It is surrounded with pleasant prospects, and fanned by perpetual breezes. A little island, on which is a grove of cocoa-nut trees and a Hindoo temple, adds considerably to the picturesque appearance of the scene. The ground is open, but not extensive. Part of it was formerly public property, and it was increased by the purchase of two small adjoining gardens belonging to the natives. The principal building is formed out of the ruins of an old granary, which has been converted into a comfortable dwelling-house of two stories by the contrivance of the civil architect. The walls are still in their original state, and the outward form of the mansion resembles a modern parish church in Scotland without a steeple. This does not suggest an idea of much elegance. But a plan is at present in agitation, which, if ever completed, will render it a villa as gratifying to the eye in its exterior appearance as it is at present neat and comfortable within. This is to be accomplished by raising the walls all around the building to an equal height, covering it with a flat roof, and inclosing the whole by an arcade of two stories of Doric architecture. Before the entrance into this house is erected a most spacious *Bungaloe* or *Pandal*, entirely formed of wooden pillars and a thatched roof. It is large enough to contain five hundred persons, and until 1805, when Mr. North left Ceylon, it

formed the theatre of all gay and festive entertainments. It is placed on that side of the house where the prospects are least open, and does not conceal any part of the surrounding scenery. When not employed on great occasions, it forms a sheltered walk, and a comfortable refuge from the sun and rain to the numerous servants and palanquin bearers, who attend Europeans in those climates. Suppers were served up in fine weather under extensive canopies formed of the roofs of tents; in rainy seasons they were laid out in four lower and two upper rooms of the house above-mentioned.

Another neat building stands near this, which was formerly a powder-mill. It is also neatly fitted up, composed of two rooms, the one a spacious hexagon, the other a well-proportioned oblong. It likewise added to the scenes of gaiety, and was appropriated for the accommodation of strangers of distinction. There are many small detached buildings throughout the garden, which formed pleasant quarters to his excellency's staff, and other gentlemen and servants of his household.

About two miles within the boundaries of the cinnamon garden stands the school-house of *Milagrè*, so named by the Portuguese. It is situate on a most beautiful eminence, surrounded by extensive coppices of cinnamon, here and there studded with groups of cocoas, and the tree which produces the cashew nut. Close to the school, on the declivity of the

same rising ground, there is a very curious well, said to have been dug whilst the Portuguese possessed the coasts of the island. The perpendicular descent into the well is of a square form, cut out of solid rock, to the depth of thirty feet; after which the well is contracted into a circular form, and is at the top of the water surrounded by sand. A subterraneous slanting passage, with steps hollowed out of the rock, leads down to this place, where a person can taste the water by taking it up with his hand. The top of the well is inaccessible, and not discoverable on account of thickets of shrubs which hang over it.

It is considered as having been constructed either as a place of refuge to shun pursuit, or an ambush from which an enemy might be surprised. The water is of a superior quality; and is celebrated, together with the soil which surrounds it, for the possession of many virtues. Both are often carried to Columbo to gratify the wild fancies of credulous superstition.

Besides the villas on *Slave-island* already mentioned, there are two gentlemens' seats on another peninsula farther up the lake, which likewise command views of the fort. Ferry-boats cross over from each side of the lake to the peninsula called Slave-island: and pleasure-barges and canoes are continually sailing on this sheltered bason. Several gentlemen, whose habitations are situate on its borders, adopt this mode of going into the fort in the morning: and

return home in the afternoon in the same manner. Many persons, whose duties confine them to the garrison, enjoy, occasionally, a pleasant recreation in accompanying their friends across the lake, and partake of a hospitable dinner, at four o'clock, with peculiar relish in so charming a situation.

Some of the most striking scenes about Columbo are seen from the ramparts of the fort, round which there is an excellent walk. When looking to the south-east, the pettah lies on the left hand, the road to Point de Galle on the right: beyond each of them is the sea, and in the centre between them is spread the lake, encompassed with thick groves of cocoa-nut, jack, and other trees, amongst which appear delightful villas, the country residences of the governor, and other gentlemen of the settlement. Here, as well as in various other situations, Adam's peak, and a chain of lesser mountains, form the back ground of many romantic prospects.

The view from the mouth of the Calany *ganga* is extremely beautiful. It exhibits an elegant winding of the river, which is separated from the sea by a long and narrow bar of sand, partly covered with grass: a small island, richly clothed with wood, divides the stream; and the opposite bank is lined with forests of cocoa-nut trees, but no mountainous scenery appears behind them. The Cingalese fishing boats, sailing in and out of the river, give a pleasing animation to the scene.

The construction of these boats is extremely curious as well as simple; and the velocity with which they move perhaps exceeds that of any other vessel. The principal part of the boat is a canoe, or hollowed tree, about fifteen feet long, and so narrow that a man has scarcely room to turn in it. It is three feet deep, contracted towards the top, but wider at the bottom. Along the edges of it one or two rows of boards are sewed or fastened with cords (for nails are never used), to raise it more above the surface of the water. In this state it might be launched into the sea, but it would be upset by a person simply stepping into it. To prevent this a log of wood, called an out-rigger, is placed parallel to the canoe on one side at the distance of six feet, and united to it by two sets of elastic poles bound together with ropes, and each bent in the form of an arch. The log of wood is shorter than the canoe, and sharp pointed at both ends, so as to cut through the water easily. The connecting poles are six or eight bamboos, or other pliant branches, of the thickness of a man's arm, bound into the form of one tree; and one set is fastened to each end of the log. On these the fishermen pass from the canoe to the out-rigger, and trim the vessel. It has one very large square sail, which is supported by two masts or poles angularly placed, the one perpendicular, resting in a plank laid across the canoe, the other swinging in a loop of rope tied round it. From the tops of each of these, ropes extend to the parallel log: and

the masts and sail can be lowered down in an instant. One of these boats is commonly navigated by two persons, a man and a boy. The man steers the canoe with one foot, by means of a paddle fixed to it over one side of the stern, and, at the same time, fishes with both hands: the boy notices the sail, and throws water on it to make it hold wind the better. When three persons belong to the boat, one of them generally stands upon the out-rigger. These boats daily venture out ten or fifteen miles from the shore: and notwithstanding their apparently frail construction, an accident rarely occurs. Their filling with water does not distress them much, as the canoes cannot sink. The men are excellent swimmers: and as long as the out-riggers remain entire, they carry sail without either inconvenience or danger. But should any part of them give way, the hoisting of the sail is impracticable, and they must then paddle to the shore. Although the vessel is unwieldy in appearance, it is turned in any direction with the greatest ease. Its structure is such, that it sails either by the bow or stern: and in tacking, nothing more is necessary than to swing the sail from the one side to the other. This boat is similar to that mentioned by Strabo, Pliny, and Solinus, as being used in their time in the same seas. A representation of it is given in the plate of the fort of Columbo.

Columbo and the surrounding country have an en-

chanting appearance from a ship a few miles out at sea. Thick woods of cocoa-nut trees, on gentle rising grounds, extend on each side of the fort along the shore. Chains of lofty mountains rise behind them, a few only of which are discernible from the land. On a nearer approach the scenery becomes still more interesting. A wide semicircular bay expanding into the mouth of the Calany *ganga* has a grand and pleasing effect: and the prospect is enlivened by the villas of the English inhabitants placed in high and conspicuous situations. These delightful spots were unoccupied and overgrown with wood, when Columbo surrendered to the British arms. Many others equally desirable are still covered with impervious thickets, which, while they obstruct the view, proclaim the genial nature of the climate, and the excessive indolence of the native inhabitants. At the same time the soil is not esteemed favourable to the purposes of agriculture, being, as has been already mentioned, an accretion of sand and clay, in many places impregnated with iron. The Dutch inhabitants of Ceylon took particular pains to exclude the sea air from their houses; and placed them in sheltered valleys, in the midst of marshes, and often close to pools of stagnant water. It has been said that they even studied to promote unhealthiness as a security to their possessions: and in this object they have succeeded at Batavia, the capital of their Indian dominions. For the pesti-

lential air, which is generated and encouraged there, has been the means of preventing the British arms from taking possession of that rich and valuable settlement.

Nothing about Columbo is more apt to excite admiration than the flourishing state of the vegetable world. So much beauty and variety are in few countries equalled, and no where excelled. The thick shade of majestic trees, the open prospects, the lively verdure, the flowering shrubs, and parasitic creepers, unite their charms to render the morning rides delightful. To describe the variegated scenery, the different appearances of the trees, the ornamental shrubs, the perpetual summer, and never-ceasing spring, is a task which language cannot adequately perform. But the efforts of an able pencil, industriously employed, might be attended with better success; and the artist, who could do justice to the scenes, would be ravished with exquisite transport, whilst he exercised his art for the advantage of the public.

Some groups of Ceylon foliage were happily imitated by the pencil of Mr. Salt, secretary to Lord Viscount Valentia, during his short residence at Columbo, in January, 1804. In these the dense and luxuriant foliage of the *jack*-tree is beautifully blended with the waving leaves of the cocoa, while the foreground is embellished with the silken plantain.

No climate in the world is more salubrious than that of Columbo: and a person, who remains within doors while

the sun is powerful, never wishes to experience one more temperate. During five years residence there I rarely heard of any person being sick, unless those whose illness was caught in the interior of the country. Before the commencement of hostilities with the king of Candy in 1803, a funeral was not a common occurrence at Columbo: and out of a thousand British soldiers, it often happened that one man was not lost in the space of two months. The air is, at all times, pure and healthy, and its temperature uncommonly uniform. Farenheit's thermometer usually fluctuates in the shade about the point of 80°. It seldom ranges more than five degrees in a day, and only thirteen through the whole year, 86° being the highest, and 73° the lowest, point, at which it has been seen in any season. The healthiness of this place may be ascribed to its dry and insulated situation, to the regular prevalence of the land and sea breezes, to its partaking of the salutary influence of both monsoons, and to the refreshing showers which fall every month in the year, cooling the air, and cherishing perpetual verdure. Three weeks of uninterrupted fair weather are rarely experienced: and a long continuance of rain is entirely unknown. Dirty streets or heavy roads are never to be seen. The soil is so dry that moisture is rapidly absorbed. When it rains at night, the following morning is always ushered in with sun-shine: when it rains in the morning, the evening never fails to be serene and pleasant. Ac-

cording to this order, rain falls, for some weeks, at one time, every morning about sun-rise, and at another time, every evening before sun-set.

The climate and scenery of Columbo form a striking contrast with the arid plains, withered vegetation, scorching winds, and clouds of burning dust, which, for several months in the year, cast an inhospitable gloom around the vicinity of Madras. There, in the month of May, 1804, Farenheit's thermometer appeared above ninety degrees before nine o'clock in the morning, and, in the course of the day, rose in many houses to one hundred and nine degrees. Other houses were rendered cooler by the use of *tatties*, thick skreens of straw placed round the verandas, on which water is constantly thrown, by native servants, during the hot hours. The air passing through this moisture becomes delightfully refreshing, and enables the better sort of inhabitants to enjoy comfort in the midst of general desolation. The smallest inconvenience from heat is never felt within doors at Columbo. Even under the full blaze of the meridian sun, the air is ten degrees cooler than that of Madras: and European gentlemen often find it pleasant to walk out, and to drive in open carriages at that hour. There is then always a fresh breeze from the sea, which greatly lessens the effects of the sun's power. But as recreation and delight are not the only objects sought after by adventurers in the

torrid zone; the tide of wealth on the coast of Coromandel supplies it with advantages of which Ceylon cannot boast.

Columbo is, by far, the most eligible place of residence in the island. Besides the superiority of climate, it possesses an agreeable mixture of society, which cannot be enjoyed in the more confined circles of the other stations.

CHAPTER III.

EUROPEAN INHABITANTS OF COLUMBO—BRITISH GARRISON—GENERAL STAFF—COURTS OF JUDICATURE—COUNCIL—ENGLISH SOCIETY—WEEKLY CLUBS—EXPENCE OF LIVING—DEPARTURE OF GOVERNOR NORTH—DUTCH AND PORTUGUESE INHABITANTS.

THE usual garrison in Columbo is one regiment of British soldiers, one regiment of *Sepoys*, or *Malays*, one company of artillery with their complement of gun-*lascars*, and a small corps of native pioneers. To the above establishment, a body of seven hundred *Caffrees* has been lately added, and formed into a regiment. Many of them were slaves at the Portuguese settlement of Goa on the coast of Malabar, where they were purchased by our government. They rejoice exceedingly at the change in their situation, and, under the active discipline of Major John Willson, promise to become brave and hardy soldiers. They are all nominally Roman Catholic Christians, and certainly know nothing of any other religion. On Sundays they march to the Portuguese church, which is a neat and commodious

place of worship, situate about two miles from the fort. Many of them have brought wives and children with them: and as scarcely any of them have had the small-pox, great pains are bestowed to disseminate, through this new colony, the benefit of vaccine inoculation. They are lodged in temporary barracks between the western walls of the fort and the sea.

Columbo is the head quarters of the army in Ceylon. A major general commands the forces; whose personal staff consists of one aide-de-camp, a military secretary, and brigade major. In the general staff may be comprehended the officer who commands the garrison, the deputy adjutant general, the major of brigade to the king's troops, the major of brigade to those of the East-India company, and the major of brigade to the royal artillery, the commissary of ordnance stores, the chief engineer, the town major, the fort adjutant, the garrison store-keeper, the quarter-master general, paymaster general, the inspector of hospitals, the garrison surgeon, and chaplain of brigade.

The governor's personal staff consists of two aide-de-camps, and a private secretary. In the government staff may be included the members of council, the chief secretary, the vice treasurer, the agent of revenue for the district, the civil paymaster, the auditor general, the accountant general, the deputy secretary, the inspector of the pearl fishery, the superintendent of cinnamon plantations, the

civil architect, the post-master general, the surveyor general, the collector of sea customs, the master attendant, or harbour master, and the civil chaplain.

" About half a century ago the supreme government of the Dutch in India promulgated a system of laws for the administration of justice in their respective settlements. This system is known by the name of the statutes of Batavia. These statutes, by altering or modifying the jurisprudence of Holland, endeavoured to reconcile the government of the company to the temper and spirit of the natives: and although they have never obtained from the superior tribunals of the republic the sanction of law, their local utility has caused them to be adopted in all the colonies; and they still in a certain degree regulate the functions and duties of the different courts of justice and police in Ceylon.

" The government, with respect to its judicial power, was divided into three departments, those of Columbo, Jaffnapatam, and Galle. Appeals lay from the two last-mentioned courts to that of Columbo: all civil causes above a certain sum, and all criminal cases affecting persons above the rank of a serjeant, might be carried by appeal from Columbo to the high court of justice of Batavia.

" All criminal causes were revised in council by the governor, who approved or suspended the sentence. But in civil causes the governor alone reviewed the judgment

of the courts of Galle and Jaffna, and modified them agreeably to his pleasure. This judicial authority vested in the governor prevailed since the time of Mr. Falk, whose great wisdom, integrity, and experience, induced the supreme government of Batavia to intrust him with this dangerous power.

"These three courts in Ceylon were not composed, like that of Batavia, of persons educated in the study of law, and sent from Europe to administer justice in the colonies independent of the executive power. The members of these courts were appointed by the governor from among the civil servants, or military officers possessing considerable revenues from the situation they held; and they were obliged to administer justice without salary, and almost without emolument. Their only perquisite, called *mantel geld* (or money to purchase cloaks), did not exceed twelve pounds per annum.

"Besides these three courts of justice there was an inferior one at Trincomalle, which probably owed its institution to the too extensive jurisdiction of Jaffnapatam, to which it was subordinate.

"In each of these courts there was an officer called the fiscal, nominated by the supreme government of Batavia. In civil cases he deliberated and voted as a judge: in criminal ones he was considered as the public prosecutor.

"In each of the departments above mentioned there

was also an inferior court called the *civil raad* (or council), the members of which were composed partly of the civil servants of the company, and partly of the burgher inhabitants.

"The country dependent on Columbo was divided into eight *corles*, and each corle was placed under the jurisdiction of a *modelear*, or native chief. His jurisdiction was hereditary by custom, though not by right; and this officer was obliged to profess the protestant religion. These different corles were under the superintendence of a civil servant of the company, called a *dessauve*, who was the fourth person in point of rank in the government of Columbo. The name and functions of this officer are derived from the Candian language and institutions. The dessauve collected the revenues of the country, and administered justice to the inhabitants. His occupations were numerous. He was charged with the ordinary correspondence between government and the court of Candy. As a judge he was obliged to hear and decide all the complaints of the inhabitants, who were not satisfied with the award of the *corle* modelear. Only one class of people was excepted from his jurisdiction. These were the fishermen of Columbo and the neighbouring river Mootwal, who were placed under the secretary of government.

"Under the native government of the country, the dessauve was the governor of a province during his life only,

holding it as a kind of fief from the crown. This dignity, however, in the districts belonging to Candy gradually became, and is now universally, hereditary. As the revenue of the sovereign was all paid according to aninvariable modus in kind, the dessauve, so long as he fulfilled the fixed statements for the province which he governed, acted in it like a feudal baron, with all the power of a sovereign: and when his adherents were numerous and his government supportable, the people of his district were apt to lose sight of the king, and become so attached to the interest and family of their dessauve, that the coalition of a few of these became dangerous to the crown.

"The number and power of the different dessauves appears to be the reason that made the first European invaders of Ceylon represent the island as divided into many various kingdoms.

"In the Candian territories at this day, although the office of dessauve is hereditary, and the persons who hold it are the real and natural aristocracy of the country, yet various revolutions have, to a certain degree, limited their power. They are now obliged constantly to reside at the seat of government, and are not permitted to visit their respective districts without permission from the king; and while absent their families are retained in Candy as hostages, to secure their good conduct.

"The Portuguese, and after them the Dutch, preserved

the name of this office, so long familiar to the people; but they prudently left him only the exterior of power, and the superintendence of justice. A similar system is now continued by the British government.

"About sixty years ago the Dutch government erected a court called the *land raad*, with a view to relieve the dessauve from a multitude of legal discussions. He referred to it all cases too complicated for his judgment, or such as he had not leisure to decide: and from the above period the inhabitants could appeal from the decision of the dessauve himself to the *land raad*, whose forms of proceeding were simple; and the charges attending the few written deeds there required, were fixed at one half of those of the three courts formerly mentioned, and to which appeals, under certain restrictions, could be made from that of the *land raad*.

"This court was extremely popular, and its decisions were generally and justly respected. A court of this kind, of easy access, is more particularly necessary in a country where the greater part of the lands are private property, where the revenue is paid in kind, and where of course a variety of little disputes arises between the landed proprietors and the farmers of the revenue."

From the arrival of the Honourable Frederic North in Ceylon, in October, 1798, until the end of January, 1802. the administration of justice was conducted under his own

immediate inspection and control. He presided in the supreme court of criminal jurisdiction at Columbo, and, in the same capacity, performed the circuit, and assembled his court at every station in the island.

In the year 1802 a supreme court of judicature was established, and the governor was relieved from the labour of exercising his talents and authority as the principal in that department. This court consists of a chief justice and one puisne justice. Annexed to it are his Majesty's advocate fiscal, registrar, a sheriff, or fiscal, and a competent number of clerks, and other ministerial officers. Two Dutch gentlemen, who have acquired a perfect knowledge of the English language, are the only persons who act as advocates, and proctors.

The chief justice takes precedence of all his Majesty's subjects in the island, excepting the governor, and all such persons as take precedence in England of the chief justice of the court of king's bench. The officer commanding the forces ranks next to the chief justice: and after him the puisne justice.

Three subordinate courts are established at Columbo for the trial of smaller offences, and the determining of causes of trifling amount. These are, the provincial court, held in the environs, which is chiefly occupied in settling disputes concerning landed property: the court of justices of the peace, which meets in the fort: and the court of the sitting magistrate in the *pettah*.

These courts are daily crowded with complainants against debtors, and petty offenders. The natives are particularly prone to litigation, and fond of having their most trifling disputes determined by a superior power; the application to which a moderate use of common sense on their own part would render unnecessary. Nothing gratifies them so much as an attentive enquiry into the nature of their grievances, and a patient hearing of their complaints. The subject of dispute does not often exceed the value of ten shillings: and they frequently retire satisfied, even when the cause is dismissed as frivolous.

A body of *Lascoreens* fantastically dressed, with Cingalese swords, and Hessian caps and feathers, surround the courts, and give to the seat of judgment, in the eyes of the natives, an air of dignity and importance.

Above all the courts of justice established in the island, excepting the supreme court of judicature, there is instituted a high court of appeal. It consists of the governor, the chief justice, the puisne justice, and the secretary of government.

The council is composed of the governor, the chief justice, the commander of the forces, who is also lieutenant-governor, and the chief secretary. The deputy secretary of government performs the duty of secretary to the council.

Some years ago all the English families lived within the fort, and one half of them still reside there. Were they

again united in the same place, the pleasures of social intercourse would be more easily obtained. When houses are scattered at great distances from one another, their inhabitants see each other less frequently, and greater proportions of time are necessarily dedicated to retirement. The inconvenience of visiting is still more severely felt at Madras, where it is not unusual to be obliged to travel from five to six miles to dine with a friend, or make a call. Some houses, in opposite points, at Columbo, are as remotely separated; but these are few in number, and, consequently, it is not often that any person has so long a journey to perform. At Madras, where a multitude of villas is widely scattered, journeys of this nature are the common occurrences of every day.

The English society at Columbo is uncommonly pleasant: and an assemblage of so many excellent characters is, certainly, rarely to be found.

The men at the head of the civil and military departments are particularly amiable: and all ranks live together in a mutual exchange of the most friendly and familiar intercourse.

The offices in the courts of law are filled by men of eminent professional attainments: and their fair partners add to the number of the pleasing objects which adorn this Indian paradise.

One thing, which evidently contributes to enliven the

pleasures of convivial intercourse, is the general intermixture of military officers with the civil servants. The urbanity of manners which distinguishes the soldier is universally known, and in this respect the garrison of Columbo has been singularly fortunate.

The society is extensive enough to afford an agreeable variety, but not so large as to be necessarily divided into many parties.

When a stranger arrives, he is introduced to every lady and gentleman in the settlement in the course of a few days. If he be a bachelor, and not appointed to any high situation, it is expected that he will call on every family with which he wishes to cultivate acquaintance. If he bring a wife with him, or be a person named to an office of distinction, the settlement consider it as their duty to be the first to commence their civilities.

When female strangers arrive, both ladies and gentlemen feel themselves called upon to honour them with their respects. These rules however are not without exceptions. A man of sense is not scrupulously ceremonious. A superior is often the first to call at the house of a person who ranks below him: and a young lady never hesitates to be the first in paying attention to the matrons of the colony.

The time for making complimentary visits is the morning: and the hour of public dinners seven o'clock in the evening.

There is less of Indian manners to be seen amongst the English inhabitants of Ceylon, than those of any other of our eastern settlements. The greater part of the former have come directly from Great Britain to the island: and although some have touched on the coasts of the Peninsula, they neither find it necessary nor convenient to adopt the system of living which they have seen practised there. Ladies and gentlemen of the first respectability at Columbo delight in the recreation of walking in the morning and evening. On the Indian continent no person stirs out either by night or day, unless in a palanquin or a carriage. Even if the climate did admit of it, the quantity of dust on the roads there would render walking disagreeable.

The English circle at Columbo consists of about one hundred gentlemen, and only twenty ladies. But the other European families can muster three hundred respectable persons, and nearly an equal number of both sexes. With these, few of the British inhabitants have associated in a familiar manner. They meet seldom, unless on public occasions, when they are mutually friendly and agreeable to one another. Intercourse of this nature does not occur sufficiently often to breed intimate acquaintance, or lasting attachments. Their young ladies, however, although educated at so great a distance from the centre of fashion, have a very pleasing and innocent appearance, and possess virtues which, probably, counterbalance those accom-

plishments that are acquired in the first circles of the polite world.

Two weekly clubs, which have been established at Columbo for several years past, contribute eminently to the promotion of social pleasures in the settlement.

The elder is the Cocoa-nut, or Whist-club, at which the principal amusement is cards. The *bungaloe*, where it is held, is beautifully situate, about four miles north-east of Columbo, at the mouth of the Calany-*ganga*, which, there, receives the name of Mootwal. The club consists of twelve members, chosen from among the most respectable inhabitants of the place. They give dinners in rotation, and generally invite twelve strangers. Some of the members, whose characters are celebrated for extensive hospitality, assemble a still greater number of guests. The entertainment is always liberal; and the assembly never fails to be animated with the highest share of convivial delight. The company repair to the villa about one o'clock in the afternoon, and play cards, read, or otherwise enjoy the country, until four, when dinner is announced. At half past five, or at six o'clock, they rise from table, make a circuit in their carriages, or on horseback, and reach their respective houses before it is dark.

The younger club is instituted for the purpose of playing the game of quoits. The *bungaloe*, where it assembles, is situate, in an opposite direction, about two miles south of

Columbo, on the road leading to Point de Galle. It commands a pleasant view of the sea on the west side, and the cinnamon garden on the east, terminated by a grand chain of Candian mountains. The wild grounds, on the north and south, are covered chiefly with cocoa-nut and cashew trees, surrounded with all the shrubs and flowers peculiar to the island.

The Quoit-club consists of twenty members, and the number of guests invited to their weekly entertainments amounts to from fourteen to twenty-four. They met, for the first three years, at half past five o'clock in the morning, played quoits until eight, at which hour they breakfasted. Part of the company remained in the country all day. Others, who had business or duty to attend, repaired to the fort about nine o'clock in the morning, and returned to the scene of amusement when they found it convenient.

In the year 1804, the public breakfasts were abolished by the voice of the majority. Some gentlemen now go out to play the favourite game of quoits about twelve or one o'clock, the cocoa-nut trees affording a pleasant shade for that purpose at all hours of the day. Others repair to the bungaloe to play cards, to read, or otherwise to enliven time, enjoying the refreshing breeze, and contemplating the rural scene. Both members and visitors wear white cotton jackets, the dress best adapted to the climate, and most comfortable to the wearers. The members are distinguished

by a badge, a silver quoit about the size of a crown piece, suspended from the neck by a green ribband, and having "QUOIT CLUB" engraved round it. Dinner is served up a quarter before four o'clock. Those who delight in the exercise of throwing quoits rise from table at five, which is the hour of general play. Various parties are formed, and the amusement continues until the shades of evening no longer permit them to exert their skill. Others continue some time longer at the festive board; and, afterwards, either ride out or become spectators of the game.

As every member of the society has timely notice before he is called upon to afford a specimen of his hospitality, great pains are taken in selecting the choicest viands. The entertainments vie with each other in taste and delicacy: and no individual spares either labour or expence to increase the happiness of the jocund assembly.

On these occasions all ranks meet together on the most easy and friendly terms. Ensigns of distinction are laid aside, and every person feels perfectly at home. The true spirit of brotherly affection reigns with uncontrolled dominion: and every countenance reflects general kindness and good will.

The two clubs dined together, in the quoit-club *bungaloe*, on the first of January, 1804, when upwards of eighty gentlemen assembled. Ladies do not attend the common meetings of any of these societies. But particular entertainments

are given to them by both, in the country, as well as in the fort, when the bungaloes and apartments are decorated with unusual splendour, and dancing always forms part of the amusements.

The expence of living in Ceylon is equal to that of any other of our Indian settlements. The necessary articles of food and the wages of servants are much dearer. Both of these are the consequence of the unimproved state of agriculture, and the small quantity of rice which is raised in the island. The expence of servants is rendered unusually great, from the circumstance of persons employed in that capacity not being natives of the country. The first English inhabitants who settled in Ceylon necessarily went from our older Indian establishments, and for the sake of comfort and convenience carried their domestics with them. Of course a sufficient allowance must be given to them, to enable them to live in the manner to which they were formerly accustomed. But were the natives of the island employed in the room of these strangers, this article of expence would be much diminished, and greater economy, at the same time, introduced into every branch of the domestic establishment. The Cingalese, in particular, can be depended upon for their honesty, and knowing the real value of every thing in the market. The only thing against them is, that, not having been accustomed to this line of life, pains must be bestowed in instructing them. They are now, however, beginning to be

employed, and promise to afford general satisfaction. The Dutch settlers in Ceylon use no other servants but slaves, a family of whom always composes part of their household. Mr. Justice Lushington was fortunate enough to obtain a Cingalese young man from the academy at Columbo, who acted as his butler, and enabled him to live at less expence than any of his neighbours in similar situations. This lad belonged to the highest class of Vellalas, and was only induced through poverty, and the burden of supporting a sister, to embrace the occupation of a servant

A small house cannot be rented in the neighbourhood of Madras under two hundred pounds per annum, and a respectable mansion, for the accommodation of a family, often costs five hundred. Uncomfortable and sultry lodgings may be procured at a lower rate in the black town. But it is neither pleasant nor creditable to reside there: and that place is only resorted to by such persons as have not the means of being accommodated any where else.

The rent of the most magnificent mansion at Columbo amounts only to three hundred pounds per annum, and a good family-house can be procured for one hundred. Living, however, taken in general, is not less expensive there than at Madras. To be comfortable at either place, an unmarried man must keep a palanquin and a one-horse chaise. Ten palanquin bearers, the common set at Madras, costs there above one hundred pounds per annum, and one-

third more at Columbo, where the maintenance of a horse amounts to fifty pounds, double the sum necessary to keep one at the former settlement. When travelling in Ceylon, a smaller number than thirteen palanquin bearers cannot be employed, and their allowance, being then increased, is upwards of two hundred pounds sterling per annum.

No bachelor can keep house at Columbo comfortably for less than £800 a year: and he may live at Madras for the same sum. A captain, who receives about £500 per annum, finds it extremely difficult to live upon his pay, notwithstanding the benefit of a mess: and a subaltern, who draws about £300, must practise rigid economy to avoid running into debt.

A respectable young merchant at Madras, who does not affect any splendour in his living, assured me that he could not reduce his household expences below £1500 sterling per annum. He resides, however, in a villa four miles from fort St. George, which situation renders a larger establishment of palanquin bearers and horses necessary.

Great loads of meat appear upon the tables of the English inhabitants of Ceylon, as well as of those of all parts of India: and this custom proceeds from the economy of housekeeping being entirely trusted to native servants, who estimate the respectability of a dinner by the quantity and largeness of the dishes that are crowded on the board. In houses where either an English lady or gentleman pays any

attention to domestic matters, the case is different: and the superior comfort of their living is always strikingly observable. The only advantage which the tables of Europeans in that country possess over those of the same rank in the united kingdom, is the profusion of elegant fruits which, every day of the year, furnishes a desert. But the relish for those luxuries is soon lost; and an English inhabitant of Ceylon looks with as much indifference on pine-apples and oranges, as John Bull does upon hard biscuit. The dainties of the table in greatest estimation there are all imported from London, such as hams, cheese, pickles, and preserves.

Claret imported from England is commonly sold at four pounds per dozen, and is the wine which is most esteemed. That which comes direct from Bourdeaux is sold at thirty-six shillings, and is a purer but weaker wine. Madeira may be purchased at the last-mentioned price. English ale is also a very favourite beverage.

The usual mode of living is to rise at day-break, ride for an hour or two in the country, dress, or perhaps bathe on returning, breakfast at half past seven o'clock, commence business at nine, and conclude at four. Lounging and dressing fill up the time until half past five, which is the hour of another ride. Dinner is usually on the table at seven o'clock, and from it the company retire to rest between nine and ten. Many persons are in the habit of sitting down to a repast at one o'clock, which is called *tiffen*, and is in fact

an early dinner. By those who can command their time, this is esteemed the best hour of the day for eating, as the evening is the most agreeable and wholesome season for enjoying a glass of wine.

The sentiments of general regret amidst which Mr. North left his government are so honourable to him, as well as to the settlement of Columbo, that no apology need be offered for inserting the following correspondence:

Address of the Civil, Judicial, and Military Officers resident at Columbo, to his Excellency The Hon. FREDERIC NORTH, Governor, &c. &c. &c.

We now approach your excellency with sincere regret; deeply impressed with a sense of the advantages we have derived from your excellency's mild and just government, we cannot view its termination with indifference. To your excellency is eminently owing the prosperity and security these territories enjoy. Amidst every impediment resulting from a war in the interior, and under the pressure of severe physical calamities, your excellency will have the satisfaction of leaving the country you have governed, in a state of the highest improvement; its revenues flourishing beyond our utmost expectation; the enemy humbled and reduced, and the confidence of the native subjects of his Majesty in

the power and resources of his government increased and confirmed.

The augmentation of the public revenue, so important in itself, becomes still more valuable when we revert to its causes—to the confidence which the natives have derived from the uniform integrity of your public acts, and from the constant and successful attention you have paid, to open to them the paths of justice, and to provide for its speedy and pure administration.

The natives under your government will long remember your excellency with reverence and gratitude, as the founder of seminaries for their improvement in religion and knowledge, and of various institutions of charity for the relief of their sick and poor, and, most particularly, for the incalculable blessings you have brought upon the island by the successful introduction and rapid extension of vaccination.

These are some of the prominent features of your excellency's public conduct; but when combined with these we reflect on your private virtues, and on those talents and acquirements which add a lustre to your social qualities, we have no other consolation for your departure but in turning aside from our privation to your prospects, and reflecting that your excellency will soon be restored to the bosom of your friends and country, with a character, high as it before stood, enhanced by absence, and unsullied by any act of injustice or oppression.

We beg leave to offer to your excellency the respectful expression of our attachment and esteem; our grateful acknowledgments for the uniform kindness we have enjoyed under your government, and our unfeigned and fervent wishes for your future health and happiness.

To which his Excellency the Governor was pleased to return the following answer.

Gentlemen,

I cannot express my sensations at this fresh mark of your kindness to me. It is to the cordial and zealous support and co-operation of every branch of his Majesty's service on this island that I principally owe any success which I may have had, in overcoming extraordinary calamities, and in securing the tranquillity and promoting the happiness of these settlements.—Their regard to my person, and good opinion of my conduct, have consoled my afflictions and embellished my prosperity; and this unanimous declaration of their sentiments, at the moment when my long and eventful government is about to terminate, must be at all times the most honourable testimony to my character, as it will be the most pleasing reflection of my heart.

Much as I am rejoiced at having obtained his Majesty's permission to return to my native country, and still more at

the very gracious terms in which that permission has been conveyed to me, I cannot leave, without a severe pang, connections so much endeared to me, by merit, by habit, and by mutual good will. The liveliness of my remembrance of you, gentlemen, cannot be increased by the splendid memorial which you have been pleased to offer me: but it will be cherished by me to the end of my life, and preserved as an additional pledge of that kindness which I so highly value and so gratefully feel.

St. Sebastians, 17th July, 1805.

On this occasion a piece of plate of the value of one thousand guineas was voted to Mr. North.

The Dutch inhabitants in Ceylon are about nine hundred in number, and, excepting a few families, are reduced to circumstances of great indigence: but by rigid and meritorious economy, and some of the lesser labours of industry, they maintain an appearance, in the eyes of the world, sometimes affluent and gay, always decent and respectable.

They are chiefly composed of officers (prisoners of war), with their families, and widows and daughters of deceased civil and military servants of the Dutch East-India company. The greater part of them are proprietors of houses, which they let, with considerable advantage, to the English inhabitants. If a poor family should only possess one good

house they retire into a smaller or less convenient one, and enjoy the benefit of the overplus of the rent, which they receive by relinquishing a more comfortable dwelling.

The Dutch inhabitants are allowed the undisturbed exercise of their religion: and the clergymen receive from government an allowance equal to one half of their former stipends. Their church council still possesses its authority: but the funds for charitable purposes have been removed from their management, and are now disposed of under the immediate direction of government.

One of the clergymen of the Dutch church, *(Gerardus Philipsz)* now resident at Columbo, is a native Cingalese, who was educated and ordained in Holland, and supports the character of a most respectable pastor.

All the private soldiers, capable of bearing arms, who fell into our hands on the capture of the island, were sent to Madras, where the greater part of them enlisted into his Majesty's service.

There is still a large body of inhabitants at Columbo and the other settlements in Ceylon, known by the name of Portuguese. They probably amount to the number of five thousand; they are, however, completely degenerated, and exhibit complexions of a blacker hue than any of the original natives. Yet they retain a considerable portion of the pride of their ancestors: wear the European dress: profess the religion of the church of Rome; and think them-

selves far superior to the lower classes of the Cingalese. The greater part of them were admitted, by the Dutch, to all the privileges of citizens, under the denomination of burghers. A corruption of their original language is still spoken over all the sea coasts. It is very easily learned, and proves of great utility to a traveller, who has not time to study the more difficult dialects of the natives.

CHAPTER IV.

DISTINCTION OF NATIVE INHABITANTS—BEDAHS—CINGALESE—THEIR CHARACTER—CASTS—PERSONS—DRESS—VARIOUS CUSTOMS—SPECIMENS OF LANGUAGES—ALBINOS—CANDIANS—MALABARS—MALAYS.

THE great body of the inhabitants of Ceylon is divided into three general classes, Cingalese, Candians, and Malabars. The first and second are descended from the aborigines of the island: the third are the offspring of colonies, which have emigrated from the Indian peninsula. Each class contains about five hundred thousand persons, making the whole population one million and a half. The Cingalese occupy the coasts of the southern half of the island, from Dondra-head to the confines of Batticalo on the east, and to the river of Chilauw on the west. The coasts farther north are occupied by Malabars. Both of these classes are subject to the British government. The Candians are entirely shut up in the heart of the country, and have never been subdued by any foreign power.

The tribe of wild people, called Bedahs, or Vedahs, who inhabit the mountains in the vicinity of Batticalo, is a description of natives distinct both from the subjects of Candy and those of Great Britain. They are not many thousands in number, and exist entirely in a savage state, living on the game which they obtain by hunting, and the spontaneous productions of the forests. They hold no intercourse with any other inhabitants, and cautiously shun being seen by any other species of the human race. It is, therefore, rarely that one of them falls into British hands: and even when they are caught, their timidity is so great that little information can be obtained from them. They speak a dialect of the Cingalese language, and possess a religion similar to that of the Brahmins. The part of the country which they occupy is extremely mountainous, very difficult of access, and little known to Europeans. It abounds with deer, wild hogs, buffaloes, elephants, and all the other animals common in the island.

Another race, of a similar description, formerly existed in the district of the Wanny, bordering on the province of Jaffnapatam. They are now, in some degree, civilized; and, unless in seasons of revolt, live in subjection to the British government. They speak the Malabar language, and, like the others, cherish the faith of Brahma, the prevailing religion of India. Their country is less mountainous, but extremely woody, and barren of useful produce.

From what quarter the ancient inhabitants derived their origin is not accurately decided. But the general opinion is, that the island was first peopled by a colony which passed into it from the peninsula of India, by the way of Rama's bridge, and carried with it the Sanscrit language, a great proportion of which is still mixed with the Cingalese. The Bedahs appear to be the most ancient inhabitants. Next in order are the Cingalese and Candians, who were originally one people, and are now only distinguished by local circumstances. The Malabars must have obtained a footing in the country at a later period.

The Cingalese are indigent, harmless, indolent, and unwarlike, remarkable for equanimity, mildness, bashfulness, and timidity. They are extremely civil, and uncommonly hospitable to strangers, shewing an eager wish to oblige, and seeming to delight in the performance of good offices. The greater part of them, who inhabit the inland provinces, live apparently in a primeval state. Their habitations are huts made of mud, or of the leaves of trees, destitute of every species of furniture. Fruit is their principal article of food, water almost their only beverage: and they wear no clothing except a piece of cotton cloth folded round the waist.

An attempt was made some years ago to train a body of them as soldiers, but, after great perseverance, it completely failed of success. A life of military discipline proved, in the highest degree, irksome and uncongenial to their habits.

They deserted in great numbers, and examples intended to terrify only stimulated those who remained to abandon the service. At length a sufficient number of recruits was obtained from the coast of Coromandel, and the corps of Cingalese was disbanded. In those regiments which are now called Ceylon native infantry, there is scarcely to be found oné native of the island.

The Cingalese are divided into nineteen casts, who all live as distinct tribes, and intermarry only with persons of their own rank or profession. The first or highest cast is that of the *handerooas*, or *vellalas*, who follow the occupation of agriculture. The second is that of the *gopelooas*, or keepers of cattle; the third, *carawas*, or fishers; the fourth, *doorawas*, *chandoos*, or drawers of *toddy*, the juice of the cocoa-nut tree; fifth, *cambooas*, or mechanics, such as carpenters, goldsmiths, &c.; sixth, *somerooas*, or tanners; seventh, *coombelooas*, or potters; eighth, *radewas*, or washers; ninth, *chalias*, or cinnamon peelers; tenth, *jagherers*, *coolies*, or common porters; eleventh *hirawas*, or sieve-makers; twelfth, *pannikias*, or barbers, amongst whom are shavers of women; thirteenth, *hoonas*, or lime-burners; fourteenth, *berewayas*, *tom-tom* beaters, or drummers; fifteenth, *olias*, makers of charcoal; sixteenth, *padooas*, palanquin-bearers; seventeenth, *kinereeas*, weavers of matts; eighteenth, *gahalegan bedeas*, executioners; nineteenth, *rodias*, *shenders*, or persons who touch and eat dead animals.

The Cingalese, in general, are of a slender make, and rather below the middle stature. Their limbs are slight, but well shaped: their features regular, of the same form as those of Europeans: and their colour of various shades, but not so dark as that of the Indians on the continent. The women are lower in stature than the men, and the greater part of them are not comely. Both sexes have uniformly black eyes, and long, smooth, black hair, which they always wear turned up, and fastened on the crown of the head, with a tortoise-shell comb, or other instrument. The white of the eye is remarkably clear. Many of the higher classes of people who are not exposed to the rays of the sun have complexions so extremely fair, that they seem lighter than the brunetts of England. In all ranks, the palms of the hands and soles of the feet are uniformly white.

The Cingalese youth wear their beards for some time after they attain the age of puberty; and before they undergo the operation of shaving, they are obliged to give a sumptuous entertainment to all their relations and neighbours. When a young man is so poor that his circumstances do not enable him to comply with this custom at the usual period, he continues wearing his beard until the smiles of fortune afford him an opportunity to get rid of it in the established manner.

The dress of the common people is nothing more than a piece of calico or muslin wrapped round the waist; the size

J. Cordiner del.

P. W. Tomkins sc.

CINGALESE DRESSES.

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and quality of which correspond to the circumstances of the wearer. The more indigent are very sparingly covered. They were no earrings; their ears are not pierced; they have no covering on their heads; and their hair is tied up with a course string.

The pieces of cloth worn by the women of the lower order are longer than those of the men, reaching generally below the knee: and the greater part of them have the addition of little white shifts, like short jackets, just long enough to cover their breasts. Others throw a piece of coarse cloth loosely over their shoulders to answer the same purpose. But several of the lower casts are not permitted the use of any of these privileges; and are obliged to appear in public, and perform their ordinary labour with their bosoms completely exposed. Cruel and indelicate as this custom appears, no individual can transgress it with impunity. In points of this nature the Ceylonese are wonderfully tenacious of their ancient rights. Only certain casts are allowed to wear coats, to carry parasols, or to have servants attending them with umbrellas: and if any person should assume one of these marks of distinction, to which he is not entitled by his birth or office, a mob would immediately surround him, and carry him as a criminal before the nearest magistrate.

The middling classes of the men wear sleeved waistcoats or jackets of white muslin; the women short shifts; and

both sexes the lower vestment of printed cotton, reaching nearly down to the ankles.

The dress of the higher orders is richer and more gaudy, but not more becoming. The piece of cloth round the waist is worn in the same manner as it is by the other ranks. But the great men, when they appear in public, have the addition of shirts with ruffles at the wrists, white waistcoats buttoned close up to the neck, and long coats without collars, cut after the old fashion of the Portuguese full dress, extremely wide, and containing a great quantity of cloth. They are made either of English broad cloth, velvet, silk, or satin of the most gaudy colour that can be procured, commonly scarlet, or dark blue. A row of large buttons extends completely from top to bottom, made of gold or silver, of tawdry shapes, sometimes solid, and sometimes set with precious stones. In common with all the other natives of India, their legs are bare, stockings never being used; but they wear a kind of slippers made of red leather ornamented with gold leaf, having the heel folded down, and the sharp pointed toe turned up. On entering a house, they leave them, as an English woman does her pattens, at the door. They have small shallow-crowned hats made of black silk or velvet; but they generally leave them, as useless appendages, at home. Occasionally, however, they are carried behind them by their servants, or by themselves, under the arm,

but very rarely put upon the head. The hair is short before, nicely turned up behind, and fixed with a large comb of tortoise-shell and gold. Wherever they go, and whether they walk or travel in a palanquin, they are always attended by some of their domestics carrying over them the umbrellas peculiar to the country. These are formed of the leaf of the talipot tree, by sewing the divided slips together. They are shaped exactly like a fan, and are folded up, and spread out in a similar manner, being about seven feet in length, and five in breadth at the expanded end. A man of high rank is accompanied by not less than three of these umbrellas. One is spread behind him, and one on each side, so that he walks in the midst of an extensive shade, completely protected both from the sun and rain. Even children, when they shew themselves abroad, are dressed in the same formal style, and guarded with the same care.

All the men in office wear swords of a moderate size, antiquated and not formidable in appearance. The hilt and scabbard are made of silver. The former imitates the head of a tiger; the latter is curiously embossed, and turned round at the point. The sashes are either of rich gold or silver lace, to which is attached a brilliant star, or cluster of various gems. The design and workmanship exhibited in these decorations are distinguishing badges of the particular rank of the wearer.

The dress of the women in the higher stations is of the

same form as that of the poorer sort: but their clothes are finer, and a greater quantity is worn. The dress which is used in the room of a petticoat is often of coloured silk, or satin, over which is thrown white muslin embroidered with flowers, and spangled with gold. The shift, which is always the upper garment, is trimmed round the bottom with lace, and decorated at the sleeves with ruffles of the same materials. On the head are gold and tortoise-shell combs, and pins set with clusters of precious stones. They have neat earrings of a similar description, and slippers of red and white leather. By their side is hung a small box of gold or silver, in which are deposited the necessary refreshments of betel leaf, areca-nut, and *chunam*, a fine species of lime made of calcined shells. These three articles are eaten together, and are a luxury of which all ranks partake. A slice of areca-nut and a pinch of *chunam* are rolled up in a betel leaf, put into the mouth, and chewed. From the mastication of the three together, the saliva is rendered of an ugly red, which is not the case when the leaf and nut are eaten without the *chunam*: the teeth and lips acquire a reddish tinge, as if coloured with Peruvian bark, which has rather a disgusting appearance to an European, but is esteemed ornamental by an Asiatic. The areca-nut corrects the bitterness of the betel-leaf, and the *chunam* prevents it from hurting the stomach. United together they possess an extremely wholesome, nutritious, and enlivening quality.

Many of the old Dutch ladies in Ceylon have attained a relish for this practice, which they observe as regularly and enjoy as much as the natives.

This custom amongst the Cingalese is completely prevalent, and almost universal. At all hours and on every occasion the mastication of those articles prevails; and two persons seldom meet without opening their boxes and exchanging a portion of their contents. In the houses of the rich, betel leaves, with the accompanying ingredients, are presented to the guests in vessels of silver. Poor people carry a supply about them in purses of coloured straw, securely lodged in a fold of their middle garment. When resting by the road side, or waiting the orders of their masters, they cheer their spirits with this favourite morsel. Various instruments are used for cutting the nuts; some of the form of a pair of nippers, others like a pen-case, with a little spade for rasping within it: a man never travels without carrying one of these about his person. For the comfort of old people who have lost the use of their teeth, the betel ingredients are reduced into a paste, which dissolves easily in the mouth.

The teeth of children and of grown Cingalese who do not follow the custom of chewing betel, possess the most beautiful whiteness and most perfect regularity.

The Cingalese are governed through the medium of their own chiefs, who act under the orders of the English servants of his majesty. The highest class of native magistrates is

known by the name of *modelears*, who, to mark their rank, may be styled captains, although their employment is more of a civil than a military nature. Subservient to these, to conduct the business and maintain the peace of the country, are *mahoottiars*, or secretaries, *mahondirams*, who may be called lieutenants, *aratchies*, serjeants, *canganies*, corporals, and *lascoreens*, private soldiers. All of these wear swords of the description already mentioned; with this difference, that the scabbards of the lower orders are made of wood instead of silver, and their belts of somewhat less rich materials. In the district of Columbo alone are registered for the public service 114 *aratchies*, 234 *cànganies*, and 2815 families of *lascoreens*.

A certain number of *lascoreens* are attached to every modelear, mohoottiar, and mahondiram, as a guard of honour. And the British governor, in all his excursions, is attended by an *aratchy's* guard, independent of his regular escort.

But although the modelears still retain the insignia of greatness, they are deprived of that unlimited power which they possessed under the Dutch government. The extent of their prerogatives has of late years been much diminished; and their personal consequence consists more in outward shew than in real power. They are, however, invested with authority to assemble the natives on all occasions, and to employ them on any service which the exigences of government require. The most implicit obedience distinguishes

all under their command; and their own immediate vassals look up to them with much reverence.

The modelear system in its original form resembled the ancient feudal governments of Europe. The lower orders of natives possessed no real property, but held of their superiors, on whose will they were entirely dependent; and the higher ranks lived in the same subjection to the despotism of their king.

Under the controul of British agents one modelear is placed at the head of every department of government; and one maintains the chief authority in every county. The Maha Modelear, who resides at Columbo, is the chief of that district, and of all the Cingalese. The other modelears, subordinate to him, are distinguished by the names of their employments, or of the divisions of the country over which they preside; as the cinnamon modelear, the fish modelear, the elephant modelear, the revenue modelear, the hinashire modelear, &c.

Soon after the English East-India Company obtained possession of Ceylon, its servants attempted to abolish the system of governing the natives through the medium of their own chiefs, and substituted Malabar agents in their room. These men, having no interest to support amongst the natives, abused the authority of their masters, and disgusted the Cingalese by acts of tyranny and oppression. This galling yoke immediately induced them to revolt; and

the British government, after suffering much inconvenience from their tumultuous conduct, was at length obliged to appease them by the restitution of their own legitimate rulers.

The receiving of the dignity of a *modelear*, or of any of the inferior orders, is an object of very high importance in the eyes of a Cingalese. All these honours are conferred upon the natives by the British governor in person. When the ceremony of instalment takes place, his excellency appears seated on a chair of state, placed on a platform, raised two or three steps from the ground, over which a rich carpet is spread. The candidate, in a bending posture, advances to the highest step, where he is met by the governor, and on his approach he embraces his right knee. The governor puts the belt with the sword over the neck of the newly created modelear, places his right hand upon his back, pronounces his title, and desires him to rise up. He descends, keeping his face towards the chair of state, and when arrived on the ground he returns thanks for the honour conferred, in the best manner he is able. When the governor bestows a gold chain and medal on any native, as a reward for his services, the donation is accompanied with a similar ceremony.

The Cingalese are extremely fond of parade and shew; and willingly pay a considerable sum of money to government for permission to make a pompous procession through

the streets and suburbs, accompanied with the music of pipes and drums. There prevails not amongst them, however, any of that pride of *cast* which is so remarkable on the continent of India. No native of Ceylon objects to sit at table or eat in company with a respectable European. At Madras the humble bearer who sweats under the load of a palanquin would as soon swallow a bowl of poison, as he would taste a cup of tea or any other article, either of food or beverage, which had been prepared for his master's table.

The state of civilization and modes of life of those Cingalese who have not yet felt the influence of European manners, well accord with the most beautiful pictures that ever have been drawn of rural simplicity flourishing under a genial climate. Their wants are but few, and those most easily supplied. The habitations even of the most indigent wear an air of comfort. Every hut and every hamlet is surrounded with groves of large fruit trees of a most picturesque appearance. The verdure and the foliage, both lively and perpetual, soften the temperature of the air, and gladden the tranquil retreats amidst these blooming thickets.

The houses are often built of timber and clay, and sometimes only of posts and leaves: they are rather smaller than English cottages, and never consist of more than one floor. The most common roof is formed of the leaves of the cocoa-nut tree. They are split lengthways through the middle of the centre nerve, and the fibres are plaited together, thus

forming sheets of matting about six feet in length and two feet broad. When disposed on the roof, one sheet laps over another; and this kind of thatch makes a house cooler, and excludes rain better than any other materials used within the tropics. The huts have only one door, and the windows are always small, and few in number. The buildings being merely intended as an occasional shelter from rain, are constructed after the most simple forms; they have no chimneys, and, excepting a portico for the sake of shade, are devoid of every artificial ornament. The inhabitants spend by far the greater portion of their time, both night and day, in the open air; sometimes reclining under the shade of a tree, and sometimes under the portico before their door. Even the business of cooking is carried on in similar situations, and very rarely within the house. A small earthen pot is placed between two stones with a few sticks below it; or a fire is kindled in a hole dug in the ground. The dish out of which they eat their victuals is often formed for the occasion out of the leaves of the nearest tree. Fruit, as has been mentioned, is the principal article of their food. Rice is a luxury, of which many of them seldom partake: fish and flesh come nearly under the same description. But many of their fruits are extremely nourishing, and make very delicious curries; amongst these the first in rank is the *jack*, the largest species of bread fruit. The chief ingredients in the seasoning of the Ceylon curries are chilies, turmeric, and

the white juice of the cocoa-nut. This last article is pressed from the kernel, after it has been removed from the shell, by an instrument which performs, at once, the operations of a scoop and a grater. The manner of boiling rice is the same in all parts of India. When thoroughly dressed, and soft to the heart, it is, likewise, whole and separate, and so dry that no two grains adhere together. They occasionally drink the sweet limpid water which is found within the cocoa-nut; and sometimes palm wine, or liquor drawn from the top of the tree, before it attains an inebriating quality.

The men, in general, labour but little, where rice is not cultivated; and all the drudgery of life falls upon the women. The possessor of a garden, which contains twelve cocoa-nut and two jack trees, finds no call for any exertion. He reclines all day in the open air, literally doing nothing; feels no wish for active employment; and never complains of the languor of existence. What has been ascribed to Indians in general is not inapplicable to this people. They say, it is better to stand than to walk; better to sit than to stand; better to lie down than to sit; better to sleep than to be awake; and death is best of all. If the owner of the garden wants any article of luxury, which his own ground does not produce, his wife carries a portion of the fruits to market, and there barters them for whatever commodity is required. The only furniture in their houses is a few coarse mats rolled up in a corner, which are spread upon the earthen

floor, when the inhabitants intend to sleep. Tables, chairs, beds, and all those articles which are considered so necessary in Europe, are here totally unknown. The ideas of the common people seem not to extend beyond the incidents of the passing hour: alike unmindful of the past and careless of the future, their life runs on in an easy apathy, but little elevated above mere animal existence.

The oppressive nature of the various governments under which the Ceylonese have so long existed has been mentioned as one cause of the poverty of their huts, and the unimproved state of their country. While property was insecure, they had little inducement to attempt bettering their condition; and they could only study with reluctance to acquire conveniences, which were no sooner procured than they became the plunder of their despotic rulers. A state of inaction is, however, the consequence of an indulgent climate: and where nature has been so liberal in her productions, she has left scarcely any incentive to industry. But notwithstanding this prevailing indolence, the botanical knowledge of the Cingalese is so great as to be a matter of surprise in their uncultivated state. The most illiterate peasant can not only tell the names but the qualities of the minutest plant that is to be found within the precincts of the district which he inhabits.

The son in a family who possesses the greatest natural talents is considered as the representative of his father, in-

vested with the authority of the first born, and looked up to by all his brethren with voluntary deference and submission.

When a labourer cultivates a field, which is not his own, he receives, as his wages, a certain proportion of the produce.

Every morning and evening the inhabitants of the villages sweep the roads before their doors, collect the fallen leaves of trees into heaps, and burn them on the spot. This custom is, no doubt, dictated by a regard to health as well as cleanliness; and is absolutely necessary to preserve the salubrity of the atmosphere, which would otherwise be vitiated by so great a quantity of vegetable substance continually putrifying in a moist and sultry climate. In their confined and simple state of agriculture no manure is ever used. Although wood abounds in all places, like other Indians, they are fond of using cow-dung as an article of fuel. For this purpose the women bake it into round cakes, which they paste on walls, or spread on the ground to dry. When fit for use, they carry it to market in baskets on their heads. At Madras it is a common sight to see this article offered for sale in loaded carts, each drawn by two bullocks.

The Cingalese women carry their burdens in baskets on their heads. The men carry theirs in two bags, or bundles, fastened to the opposite ends of an elastic piece of wood, slung over one shoulder. They are employed for transporting fish to market, and convey them in the above manner.

The stick used for that purpose is either formed of a piece of split bamboo, or of the centre nerve of the cocoa-nut leaf. It is the women's business to bring home fire-wood, to cook, and to take care of the cattle.

When a poor man waits upon a superior, either to pay him a compliment or to ask a favour, he never appears before him empty, but always carries in his hands a present of fruit or game. He expects no immediate remuneration, and often looks not for any future reward: yet no reception could affront or deject him so much as the refusal of his gift. A piece of money, however, when offered in a handsome manner, meets with a welcome acceptance.

During the Dutch administration on the island, when a governor, collector, clergyman, or modelear, travelled through the country, the indigent natives were obliged to furnish him and his retinue with all the necessaries and refreshments of life raised in their province, with the absolute certainty of not receiving any recompence. Conditions of this nature were considered as attached to the precarious tenures on which they held their little crofts. But a system so impolitic and oppressive could not be countenanced by a more liberal government: and this abuse of power has been happily abolished by the influence and example of the British governor. When Mr. North set out on his first tour round Ceylon, large detachments of the Cingalese repaired from all quarters to his camp loaded with the rich productions of

the country, which they presented in willing offerings, without the smallest expectation of recompence. They were, therefore, not a little surprised, when, by his excellency's orders, every man was paid in money a full compensation for the value of the articles which he delivered. To meliorate the condition of the poorer class of Indians, is an object worthy of the attention of an enlightened mind; and the government that lends its aid in a work of such high utility, will be remunerated ten fold in the augmentation of its revenue and resources.

The modelears and higher orders of the Cingalese have adopted many of the customs of Europeans, whom they strive to imitate in the structure of their houses, and their furniture, and the style of their entertainments. Their fortunes, however, are but moderate, when compared to the overgrown possessions of some of the natives of Hindustan. Their usual mode of life is simple, and economical; and the fare of a modelear differs but little from that of a peasant. Curry is the prevailing dish, water the only drink: and the ingredient of butter, with a small quantity of animal food, is the only luxury in which the rich indulge. Even the maha-modelear, when retired to the sanctuary of his own dwelling, is stript to the skin; and may be seen by a visitor sitting in an arm-chair, without any other article of dress but a piece of muslin wrapped about his loins. In this situation he displays an engaging gentleness of dispo-

sition, and an habitual tranquillity of mind. Notwithstanding the simplicity of his retired life, when the Ceylonese chieftain appears in state, he is arrayed in more costly robes than a peer of the imperial parliament. Although as tenacious of money as other Indians, he voluntarily squanders large sums on the finery of dress and the pomp of splendid entertainments. On these occasions frugality yields to extravagance and profusion: and the labours of a whole tribe are combined in adding to the decorations of the mansion and the luxury of the feast. Every peasant, whose assistance is required, seems to delight in the employment, and repairs to the house of his master loaded with presents. A modelear sometimes gives a breakfast, sometimes a dinner to a select party of his British friends, and often a ball and supper to all the European gentry of Columbo. In expences of this nature he is never backward, and rejoices on every occasion which calls for a display of great festivity in his house. The birth of a child, the marriage of a son or daughter, the obtaining of any honorary distinction, even the arrival of an eminent stranger, furnishes an apology for the exhibition of his munificent and lavish hospitality. Spacious bungaloes are often erected for the use only of a single evening, the pillars ornamented with cocoa-nut leaves, the roof spread with white muslin, embellished with beautiful moss, and hung with a profusion of brilliant lamps, the manufacture of European glass-houses. Sometimes wooden plat-

forms eight inches high, enclosed with rails, are provided for the purpose of dancing; and sometimes well-beaten turf forms the only ground for this favourite amusement. The tables are laid out and furnished in the best style of British-Indian hospitality. The united luxuries of Europe and Asia are displayed in superfluous abundance. No wines but those of the choicest quality are permitted to appear; and the modelear feels happy, when assured that the banquet is satisfactory to his guests. In general, he acts as high steward of the feast, and participates only of the gratification of a spectator. If any of his European superiors be present, he never thinks of presiding at his own table, but yields the seat of dignity to the person of highest rank. When the governor is in company, the host stands behind his excellency's chair during the time of supper; drinks a glass of wine when desired, and, of his own accord, proposes such toasts as he thinks will be most acceptable to loyal Englishmen.

On these festive occasions, the poor labourers, whose presents and ingenuity have formed the ground-work of the entertainment, are not forgotten. A shed is erected, and a refreshment provided for them in an obscure corner of the garden, which solicits not the eye of public observation. A long table runs down the middle of the apartment, with benches on each side. Plantain leaves raised at the edges form one continued dish or border along the board, filled with hot rice properly seasoned. A few lamps made

of clay throw a glimmering light through the darkness of the hall. Neither plate nor spoon is used, but every man eats with his right hand in the same manner as the elephant feeds himself with his proboscis. About one hundred naked and contented inhabitants of the province sit down to this plain but plentiful repast, which, it is probable, they enjoy with higher relish than that which their superiors experience at a table crowded with the rich productions of all the corners of the globe. In general the poor Cingalese use no other seats or tables but the bountiful earth. After supper, the same open pavilion becomes their bed-chamber, and lying down promiscuously on the floor, they enjoy a sweet and undisturbed repose.

Different from all other nations of India, the higher orders of the Cingalese profess Christianity, and perform their marriage ceremonies according to the rights of the church of Holland. Sunday is the day generally chosen for the celebration of the nuptials, which is always accompanied with public entertainments of music, dancing, and feasting. The house is surrounded with a crowd, and the ears of all present are stupified with a continual noise. Before dinner, tumbling, performed by expert natives, often contributes to the amusement. A pompous procession takes place to and from the church, in which are carried very elegant ornaments raised on poles, resembling palm trees with the leaves shredded as small as grass. At one end of the dancing-hall

a gaudy throne is erected several steps from the ground, for the reception of the bride. There she sits all the evening, glittering with ornaments, and a virgin on each side of her. A canopy is supported by pillars, all of which are covered with shining tinsel, and burnished gold. Those persons who wish to pay their respects to the bride repair to the foot of the throne, and she politely rises to receive their salutations. When the British governor attends an entertainment of this nature, a seat similarly decorated is raised for him on one side of the apartment; and he is under the necessity of sitting on it for some time out of compliment to his entertainers. There is no particular place assigned to the bridegroom, who mixes as he pleases with the common throng. A bedstead richly decorated is exhibited to the guests in a private chamber; but when the happy pair retire to rest, they are contented to repose on a mat or carpet.

A great proportion of both high and low live as regularly in the married state, as is usual in any other part of the world. A man is contented to possess only one wife, and seldom discovers any inclination to change her. Among those who live under the British government, and profess Christianity, instances of divorce are extremely rare; and a husband is not permitted to marry two wives. Even concubines are seldom found in the houses of the rich, and never in those of the poor, unless in the room of wives, when

poverty induces such a connection instead of regular matrimony.

When a Cingalese pair professing the religion of Buddha are married, the thumbs of their right hands are bound together by a slip of cotton cloth, and water poured upon them out of a basin. The ceremony is performed by the man's father's brother, and the woman's mother's sister, and, when these relatives cannot be found, by the next akin. A poor criminal who had lived in a state of concubinage having been condemned to suffer death for murder, at Point de Galle, in July 1800, previous to his execution, went through the above-mentioned form of marriage for the purpose of legitimating his children. When the parties are in affluent circumstances, the ceremony is accompanied with additional solemnities; but contracts of this nature are not considered so binding as when the rites are celebrated by a Christian pastor.

Gay and noisy amusements do not often interrupt the predominant repose of the genuine Ceylonese, but a sort of comical representation is sometimes attempted to gratify a man of elevated rank, or to celebrate an occasion of extraordinary festivity. On the 28th of December, 1803, while Lord Viscount Valentia was visiting governor North at Columbo, a numerous company of the British inhabitants were favoured, after dinner, with the sight of an exhibition, called by the natives a Cingalese play, although, from the rude nature of the performance, it can hardly be ranked

among the productions of the dramatic art. The stage was the green lawn before his excellency's villa at St. Sebastian, and the open theatre was lighted with lamps supported on posts, and flambeaus held in men's hands.

The entertainment commenced with the feats of a set of active tumblers, whose naked bodies were painted all over with white crosses. They walked on their hands, and threw themselves round, over head and heels, three or four times successively without a pause. Two boys embracing one another, with head opposed to feet, tumbled round like a wheel, but necessarily with a slower motion, as a momentary stop was required when each person touched the ground. The young performers, singly, twisted their bodies with a quickness and flexibility which it would be difficult to imitate in a less relaxing climate. Some of the movements produced sensations by no means agreeable, as they conveyed the idea of occasioning uneasiness to the actors.

After this, six or seven professed dancers appeared on the stage. They were dressed like the gay damsels on the coast of Coromandel, but the greater part of them appeared not to be females, and an inferiority of gesticulation was visible in the style of their performance.

Two men, raised upon stilts, walked in amongst them, exhibiting a most gigantic stature. Pieces of bamboo were tied round their legs, reaching only a little above the

knee, and elevating them three feet from the ground. They moved slowly, without much ease, and had nothing to support them but the equipoise of their own bodies. Had any of them fallen, the consequences would have been dangerous; but the surrounding crowd might probably have prevented such an accident.

The first set of dancers was succeeded by a second in different dresses, with ornamental plates of gold around their heads.

Then came forward a man with a mask, in the ancient Portuguese dress, clearing the stage, with a sword in one hand and a switch in the other. Next appeared two characters resembling Dutchmen, likewise masked, capering about, and driving every thing before them in a haughty and imperious manner.

These were followed by several groups of masks, all of them having large teeth of fanciful forms, many of them two tusks like those of a boar; and one with the head and proboscis of an elephant. They carried in each hand a lighted torch, which they whirled dexterously about, occasionally extinguishing one flame, and suddenly lighting it again in the course of the rotation. One of them held a trident torch, of the form of the letter T inverted, which he turned rapidly round. Some of those characters strutted about laughing to excess, but speaking little, and seemed intend-

ed, by the Cingalese, to personify devils, of the former existence of which, in their country, they possess many traditions which are believed with implicit credit.

An excellent imitation of a wild bear next sprung upon the scene of action. The head and tail were perfect, and the character was well supported; but, like all the others, it remained too long in view; and, as the spectators wearied, the effect diminished. There also appeared several good imitations of deer and antelopes, formed of boys, having their legs and arms lengthened by pieces of bamboo.

But the prettiest part of the entertainment was a circular dance by twelve children, about ten years of age. They danced opposite to one another, two and two, all courtesied, at one time, down to the ground, shook their whole bodies with their hands fixed in their sides, and kept time to the music with two little clattering sticks, one in each hand. Going swiftly round, being neatly dressed, of one size, and perfect in the performance, this youthful dance produced a very pleasing effect, and brought to remembrance the pictures of the fleeting hours.

The exhibition concluded with love scenes between men and women, which appeared, to an English eye, as bordering upon indecency.

The Cingalese, who profess the religion of Mahomet, appear to be a mixed race, the principal of whose progenitors had emigrated from the peninsula of India.

They are a much more active and industrious body of people than either the Christians or followers of Buddha. Among them are found merchants, money-changers, jewellers, carpenters, taylors, and all the useful tribes of mechanics. In cutting precious stones, and making rings and other ornaments of gold, they are particularly neat-handed and ingenious. From the simple power of their own invention they have produced many specimens of design and workmanship, far from being inelegant. One of their favourite ornaments is a ring set completely round with samples of all the stones which the island produces.

Their tools and apparatus are extremely simple, and few in number. A workshop is a thing unknown. The goldsmith labours, sitting on his haunches, in the portico of his house; and when he travels, or goes to labour at another place, he carries all his implements over his shoulder in a small bag.

The occupation of washing, like every other branch of domestic economy, is confined to a particular class of people. It is performed only by men, on the banks of rivers or lakes, by dipping the garments in the water, and striking them against a flat stone. No soap is used; and the sun rapidly performs the operation of the most effectual bleaching.

There are persons amongst the Cingalese who yearly publish written almanacks, containing predictions of the

nature of the seasons, the health or sickness, peace or war that is to prevail, and many other articles of intelligence, characteristic of their predominant superstition.

The Cingalese have a language and written characters peculiar to themselves and the Candians, and entirely unknown in any other part of the east. Besides the common language of the country, there is likewise a high poetical Cingalese, in which many books are written, but understood only by a very small number of the most learned natives on the island. They all write from the left hand to the right, on the leaves of the palmyra, or talipot tree, with a piece of pointed steel set in a handle. The leaves are neatly cut into slips, about two inches in breadth, and a foot and a half in length*: to bind the book together, a round hole is made in each leaf, through which a string is passed, and fastened to two boards richly painted, of the same dimensions as the leaves. When the writing is finished the leaf is rubbed over with a black juice, which fills up the characters, and gives them the appearance of neat engraving.

The common Cingalese, which is both harmonious and energetic, has been studied by all the Dutch clergymen and Portuguese priests, whose province it has been to instruct that people. But, at a late period, (1804) only one Englishman had become master of that language. His

* There is a Coptic MS. of this form and size in the public library at Cambridge.

name is Andrew Armour, the principal teacher in an English school, established at Columbo for the benefit of the natives. A specimen of the simple characters is here given: but a representation of the complete alphabet could not be contained in less than ten similar plates.

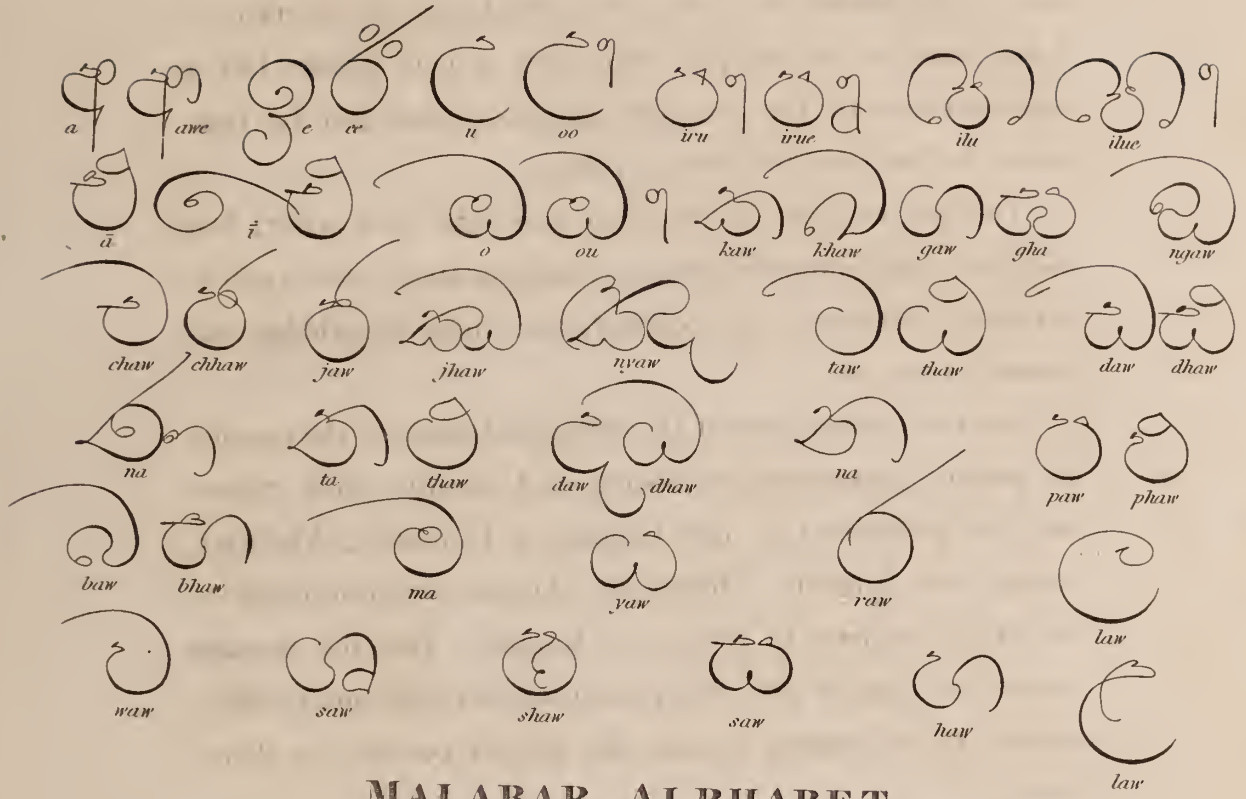
The greater part of the men can read and write: but these accomplishments are not communicated to the women. All their instruction is received, and their knowledge expressed, *viva voce*.

For the information of the different bodies of the people, all public proclamations issued at Columbo must necessarily be published in four languages, Cingalese, Malabar, Dutch, and English. Orders are likewise communicated to the Malay soldiers in their own tongue. But the persons called Portuguese are always acquainted with one or other of the native dialects, besides the jargon peculiar to themselves.

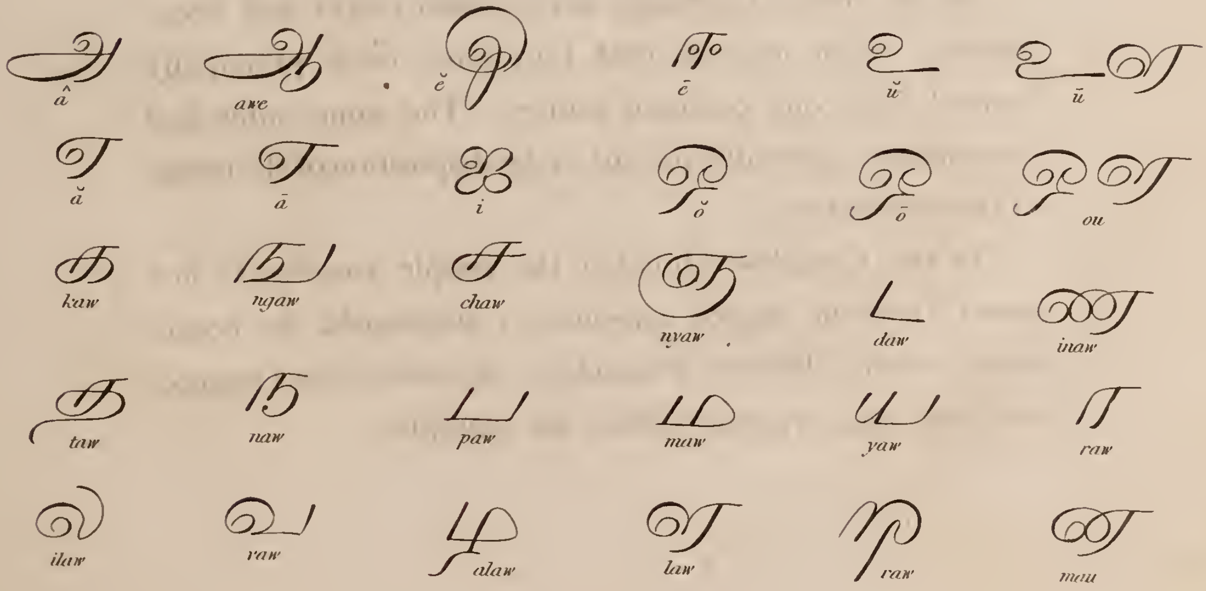
All the Indian languages have certain marks and peculiarities, which indicate that they have been principally derived from one common source. The same order and combination generally prevail in the disposition of the letters of their alphabets.

In the Cingalese alphabet the simple vowels are first noted, then the simple consonants; afterwards, the consonants forming different characters, expressing their connection with each separate vowel; for example:

CINGALESE ALPHABET.



MALABAR ALPHABET.



Sutfield sculp.

Published March 20th 1807, by Longman Hurst, Rees, & Orme, Paternoster Row.

VOWELS.

A, awe, e, ee, u, uu, iru, irue, ilu, ilue, ā, ī, o, ou*.

CONSONANTS.

Kaw, khaw, gaw, gha, ngaw, chaw, chhaw, iaw, ihaw, nyaw, tau, t-haw, daw, dhaw, na, ta, t-haw, daw, dhaw, na, paw, phaw, baw, bhaw, ma, yaw, raw, law, waw, saw, shaw, saw, haw, law.

DOUBLE LETTERS.

Ka, khawe, ke, kee, ku, kuu, kiru, kirue, kilu, kilue, kā, kī, ko, kou, ga, ghawe, ge, gee, &c.

By this manner of writing, the alphabet contains four hundred and ninety characters. More are sometimes added; but even all that number are not in general use. The necessity of learning them, however, renders the first rudiments of these languages more difficult and tedious than those of any European tongue.

A grammar of the Cingalese language was published in Dutch many years ago; and a gentleman at Columbo is now employed in making one in English. I have not studied the language, but the following specimen was dictated by a native who understood English. The *numbers* correspond pretty accurately with those given in Knox's history. The

* Iru and ilu are not properly vowels, as they have consonants united with them, and sound as ir and il.

spelling is different, but the sound of the words is the same. A more particular account of this language will soon be given to the public by Joseph Jonville, esq. who paid considerable attention to the study of it during seven years residence in Ceylon.

Specimens of the two principal languages spoken in Ceylon.

ENGLISH.	CINGALESE.	MALABAR.
One	ekai	onnu
two	dekai	rendu
three	tunai	munu
four	hatarai	nalu
five	pahai	anju
six	highyai	aaru
seven	hattai	ailu
eight	attai	ettu
nine	nammayai	on paddū
ten	dahayai	pattu
eleven	ecolohai	paddi nonnu
twelve	dolohai	pan rendu
thirteen	dahatunai	paddi munu
fourteen	daha hatarai	paddi nalu
fifteen	pahalohai	paddi nainju
sixteen	dahasayai	paddi naru
seventeen	daha hattai	paddi nœlu
eighteen	daha attai	paddi nettu
nineteen	daha nammayai	patton badu
twenty	weessai	irru paddu
twenty-one	weessekai	irru pat tonnu
twenty-two	weessdekai	irru pat rendu

ENGLISH.	CINGALESE.	MALABAR.
thirty	teehai	mooppaddu
forty	hattaleehai	naat paddu
fifty	pannahai	aen paddu
sixty	hettai	arru paddu
seventy	hettaiwai	aillu paddu
eighty	assoowai	œn paddu
ninety	annuway	ton nuru
one hundred	seeayai	nuru
one thousand	dahai	aeerum
two thousand	de dahai	renda eerum
time	kalé	kalum
an hour	paiya	(orru) manitt teealum
a day	dawassa	(orru) nal
a week	hatteea, corrupted *sumana*	kullamay
a month	masey	mathum
a year	a hurudda, warushey	warrulshum
Sunday	irri da	naittukullumey
Monday	handu da	tingut kullumy
Tuesday	anga harru wada	shuvai kullumy
Wednesday	badda da, buddha da	pudan kullumy
Thursday	brahaspatin da	vialuc kullumy
Friday	seecura day	wullik kullumy
Saturday	sennasura day	sannick kullumy
the sun	irra, suria, ravi	sureein
the moon	handa	sanderin
Mars	anga harruwa	angaracum
Mercury	boodhahu	bodun
Jupiter	brahasspatti, goorru	brahasspattum
Venus	seecura	sucurum
Saturn	senna sura	sannaiswurrum
a planet	grahaya	kurrahum
a star	tarru kawa	natchetirum
a comet	walga tarru kawa	wal vulli
husband	raddala, prusea	adawin
wife	hannaïhai, istreé	adawul

ENGLISH.	CINGALESE.	MALABAR.
father	pee-a	peetháa, appa
mother	ma-u	maatha, amma
head	essa, olluwa	tallé
eye, eyes	aihă, aïss	kannu, kan
nose	nahé	muku
hair	case	miru
tooth, teeth	datta, dat	pal, pallu
hand	atta	kai
night	rastreea	ratree
morning	udaia	kalamay
white	suddu	veilley
black	kallu	karrupu
good	honda	nalladu
bad	narraka	pollapu
fire	gindura	nerupu
water	watura	tanni
earth	pollawa	pumee
air	buwanna	ahasum
cocoa-nut	pol	tengai
cocoa-nut tree	pol gaha	tenna marum
paddy	wee	nellu
rice	hall	arisee
boiled rice	bat	soru
fish, fishes	massa, mass, malu	meen
hog, hogs	ura, uro	pandi, pandihu
I	mamma	naan
you	umba*.	neer
he, they	ohu, ohun	aver, averhu
God	dewio	tamberan

* The Cingalese use seven different words for *you* according to the rank of the person whom they address. *Umba* is used when speaking to an equal.

The Cingalese language is composed of the Sanscrit and Pali. Pali is said to have been the language of Buddha.

In a hut one mile south of Columbo, on the road leading to Point de Galle, are to be seen two white children born of black parents. They belong to that class of the human species denominated Albinos. When viewed at a distance, the colour of their bodies resembles that of an European: but on a nearer approach the whiteness is pale and livid, and their appearance is sickly and delicate. Their hair, eye-brows, eye-lashes, and down upon their skin, are perfectly white, and of a very fine soft texture. The iris of the eye is of a beautiful blue, and the white extremely pure: their eyes are very weak, and generally closed. When they open them at the request of any person, they soon shut them again. They cannot see in bright sunshine; and their sight seems at all times feeble. Their constitution is languid; and they never stir from the door of the hut where they were born, unless when carried in their mother's arms. The father and mother are both Cingalese of the poorer sort, apparently healthy, and have a son younger than either of the Albinos, perfectly black, and as stout and robust as any of his countrymen.

Extracts from Knox's History.

" I have heard a tradition from some Portugueze here, which was; that an antient king of China had a son, who during his father's reign, proved so very harsh and cruel unto the people, that they being afraid he might prove a tyrant if he came to the crown, desired the king to banish him, and that he might never succeed. This that king, to please the people, granted. And so put him with certain attendants into a ship, and turned them forth unto the winds to seek their fortune. The first shore they were cast upon was this island: which they seated themselves on and peopled it."

" The *Vaddahs* speak the *Chingulayes* language. They kill deer and dry the flesh over the fire, and the people of the countrey come and buy it of them. They never till any ground for corn, their food being only flesh. They are very expert with their bows. They have a little ax which they stick in by their sides, to cut hony out of hollow trees. Some few, which are near other inhabitants, have commerce with other people. They have no towns nor houses, only live by the waters under a tree, with some boughs cut and laid round about them, to give notice when any wild beasts come near, which they may hear by their rustling and trampling upon them. Many of these habitations we saw

when we fled through the woods; but God be praised the *Vaddahs* were gone."—" The wilder sort of them, when they want arrows, carry their load of flesh in the night, and hang it up in a smith's shop, also a leaf cut in the form they will have their arrows made, and hang by it. Which if the smith do make according to their pattern they will requite, and bring him more flesh: but if he make them not, they will do him a mischief one time or another by shooting in the night. If the smith make the arrows, he leaves them in the same place, where the *Vaddahs* hung the flesh."—" They never cut their hair, but tye it up on their crowns in a bunch. The cloth they use, is not broad nor large, scarcely enough to cover their buttocks. The wilder and tamer sort of them do both observe a religion. They have a God peculiar to themselves. The tamer do build temples, the wild only bring their sacrifice under trees, and while it is offering, dance round it, both men and women.

" They have a peculiar way by themselves of *preserving flesh.* They cut a hollow tree and put honey in it, and then fill it up with flesh, and stop it up with clay. Which lyes for a reserve to eat in time of want."—" For portions with their daughters in marriage they give hunting dogs."

" The *Chingulayes* are a people proper and very well favoured, beyond all people that I have seen in India, wearing a cloth about their loyns, and a doublet after the English fashion, with little skirts buttoned at the wrists, and gathered at the

shoulders like a shirt, on their heads a red *tunnis* cap, or if they have none, another cap with flaps, with a handsome short hanger by their side, and a knife sticking in their bosom on the right side.

"They are very active and nimble in their limbs; and very ingenious; for, except iron-work, all other things they have need of, they make and do themselves: insomuch that they all build their own houses.

"In carriage and behaviour they are very grave and stately like unto the *Portugals*, in understanding quick and apprehensive, in design subtil and crafty, in discourse courteous but full of flatteries, naturally inclined to temperance both in meat and drink, but not to chastity, near and provident in their families, commending good husbandry. In their dispositions not passionate, neither hard to be reconciled again when angry. In their promises very unfaithful, approving lying in themselves, but misliking it in others; delighting in sloath, deferring labour till urgent necessity constrain them, neat in apparel, nice in eating; and not given to much sleep.

"The natures of the inhabitants of the mountains and *low-lands* are very different. They of the *low-lands* are kind, pitiful, helpful, honest and plain, compassionating strangers, which we found by our own experience among them. They of the *up-lands* are ill-natured, false, unkind, though outwardly fair and seemingly courteous, and of more com-

plaisant carriage, speech and better behaviour, than the *low-landers.*

"As for the women, their habit is a waistcoat of white calico covering their bodies, wrought into flourishes with blew and red: their cloth hanging longer or shorter below their knees, according to their quality; a piece of silk flung over their heads; jewels in their ears, ornaments about their necks, and arms, and middles. They are very thrifty, and it is a disgrace to them to be prodigal, and their pride and glory to be accounted near and saving. The men are not jealous of their wives, for the greatest ladies in the land will frequently talk and discourse with any men they please, although their husbands be in presence.

"The signs of higher or meaner ranks, are wearing of *doublets*, or going bare-backed without them: the length of their cloth below their knees; their *sitting* on stools, or on blocks, or mats spread on the ground: and in their *caps.*

"The highest cast are their *noblemen,* called *hondrews;* which comes from the word *homdrewné,* a title given to the king, signifying *majesty*: these being honourable people. 'Tis out of this sort alone, that the king chooseth his great officers and whom he imploys in his court, and appoints for governors over his countrey. Riches are not here valued, nor make any the more honourable. For many of the lower sorts do far exceed these *hondrews* in estates. But it is the birth and parentage that inobleth.

"These are distinguished from others by their *names*, and the wearing of their *cloth*, which the men wear down half their legs, and the women to their heels; one end of which cloth the women fling over their shoulders, and with the very end carelessly cover their breasts: whereas the other sort of women must go naked from the waist upwards, and their cloths not hang down much below their knees.

"Here is no wooing for a wife. The parents commonly make the match, and in their choice regard more the quality and descent than the beauty. If they are agreed, all is done. The match being thus made, the man carrieth or sends to the woman her wedding clothes; which is a cloth containing six or seven yards in length, and a linen waistcoat wrought with blew and red. If the man be so poor that he cannot buy a cloth, it is the custom to borrow one. In case the man with his friends goes and carries it himself, that night they both sleep together to beget acquaintance one with the other. And then they appoint a day when he is to come and fetch her home; which is the *marriage-day*.

"The day being come, he attended with his friends go to her house, which is always in the evening, and brings provisions and sweetmeats with him according to his ability, towards the charges of the wedding, which is never more than two meals, whereof supper is the first. Then the bride and bridegroom both eat together in one dish, which is to intimate that they are both of one rank and quality,

and sometimes they tye their thumbs together, but not always.

"The next day having dined he taketh his bride, and departeth home with her, putting her before him, and he following her, with some of her friends to conduct her. For it is the constant custom and fashion in this land for the husband to follow his wife. The reason whereof is a tradition among them, that a man once going foremost, it happened that his wife was stolen away, and he not aware of it. Being come home the bridegroom makes a feast as he is able.

"Some few days after, her friends usually come to see her bring a present of provisions with them. And sometimes they use this ceremony, the man is to stand with one end of the woman's cloth about his loins, and she with the other, and then they pour water on both their heads, wetting all their bodies; which being done, they are firmly married to live together, so long as they can agree."

The Candians having been originally one people with the Cingalese, do not differ from them more than the inhabitants of the mountains, of any other country, differ from those of the plains or sea coasts. Their language, religion, and modes of life are the same. The Candians are of a stouter make, and fairer complexion, but not taller. Their manners are less polished; and the constant wearing of their beards adds to the natural ferocity of their appearance.

The lower orders of the people go almost naked, and wear nothing on the head: but the great men are superbly dressed, and covered with loads of white muslin ornamented with gold. The quantity of clothes wrapped round their middle swells their waist to an extraordinary size, which is considered as an emblem of their dignity. Their upper garment is of the form of a wide sleeved gown, and girded about the loins. A ruff surrounds the neck: a square cap is worn on the head; and, whenever they appear abroad, they are accompanied by umbrella-bearers, and a multitude of other attendants. The Adigaars are always preceded by two men, cracking immense whips, as emblems of their judicial power. The dresses, both of the men and women, resemble, in many particulars, those of the Malabars, which are hereafter to be described; and it is evident that the form of no part of their attire is borrowed from that of Europeans. Indian costume has been copied in England; but the fashion of India never changes. The dress of the inhabitants there is the same at this day as it was as far back as history reaches.

The Candians, as has been mentioned, are confined to the centre of the island; and no part of their territory is less than six miles distant from the sea shore. Although a people apparently less amiable than their neighbours the Cingalese, they are, in general, innocent and harmless: but the court is full of intrigue; and the perfidy attached to its ministers reflects odium on the character of the nation.

MALABAR DRESSES.

CANDIAN DRESSES.

J. Cordiner del.

P. W. Tomkins sc.

The king of Candy is the sole proprietor of all the territories occupied by his own subjects, who live in a state of the most abject dependence: and the fear of punishment is the only principle which secures their allegiance. They are all poor, possessing only the mere necessaries of life. Their huts are mean, and destitute of furniture. They have, however, arrived at a considerable degree of perfection in agriculture: but have made only a small progress in the art of numeration. Whatever wealth the nation possesses is concentrated in the crown, and a small number of courtiers.

The government is pure despotism, and the king is invested with the power of condemning his subjects to death without trial. The neglect of any royal edict as soon as detected is immediately punished by the execution of the offender; and such acts of tyranny are far from being uncommon.

The monarchy, however, is elective: but by the laws of the country, the sovereign must be chosen from a race of Malabars, who are not the original natives of the island. The electors consist of a small number of noblemen, who are the only courtiers, as well as the governors of provinces. The king is looked up to as an idol, before whom the courtiers prostrate themselves on the ground; and while performing to him acts of the most abject adulation, rule his subjects with arbitrary sway under the mask of the royal authority.

These courtiers, or public ministers, are acute, distrust-

ful, and prone to duplicity. In the transaction of business, they are, in the highest degree, dilatory, delighting in procrastination, and bigoted to tedious customs and punctilious forms. In the depth of political finesse, they are even a match for Gallic subtilty.

From the circumstance of the monarchy being elective, and the line of choice not being distinctly marked, the country is agitated by constant factions, conspiracies, and rebellions: and the court is inflamed by jealousies, rivalship, and discord.

For some centuries past, little intercourse has subsisted between the Candians and Europeans. Even in time of peace a Candian rarely approaches any of the British settlements. The little trade which the Candians carry on with other nations, is either transacted within their own territories or on the frontiers. This reserve proceeds from the policy of the government, which, having often suffered from the aggressions of other powers, now wishes its subjects to remain peacefully employed at home. The only persons privileged to go abroad are the priests of Buddha, who wander, unchallenged, at all times, over all parts of the island; and, during war, serve both parties as spies.

The Candians are independent of foreign commerce, and import little besides cotton cloths of the finer sorts. Their own country produces every thing that is necessary for their subsistence; and salt is found so near to their frontiers, that

no hostile power has yet been able to prevent them from being plentifully supplied.

"This place of *Leawava*," says Knox, meaning the natural salt pans of Magam, "is so contrived by the providence of the Almighty Creator, that neither the Portugueze nor Dutch in all the time of their wars could ever prevent this people from having the benefit of this salt, which is the principal thing that they esteem in time of trouble or war; and most of them do keep by them a store of salt against such times. It is, as I have heard, environed with hills on the land side, and by sea not convenient for ships to ride; and very sickly, which they do impute to the power of a great God, who dwelleth near by in a town they call *Cotteragom*, standing in the road, to whom all that go to fetch salt both small and great must give an offering."

They pride themselves on having maintained the independence of their country from time immemorial; and, although in a condition not better than slaves, exult in a species of barbarous liberty. The great men wear an aspect of confidence and cheerfulness; and appear more at ease in the company of Europeans than the timid Cingalese. What Knox wrote upwards of one hundred and twenty years ago, concerning the manners of this people, carries with it the stamp of truth, in almost every instance which has come under the observation of later travellers. An extensive knowledge of the world is not to be found amongst Eastern

princes. Many of them, however, are well acquainted with all the labyrinths of the human heart; and their observations are often just and striking, discovering sagacity and penetration.

On the fifth of February, in the year 1802, an ambassador from Candy arrived at Columbo, attended by two other nobles of the court. They lodged at the distance of a mile from the fort, in a house built for the reception of their countrymen. When they entered the fort, the streets were lined with troops; and, on their arrival at the portico of the government-house, they were met by the town major, and the governor's two aide-de-camps, who handed them, in the manner that gentlemen hand ladies, into an inner chamber, where the governor, attended by the chief justice, commander of the forces, and chief secretary, was prepared, in state, to receive them. Seven chairs were placed at the farther end of the room, one by itself, and three on each side, at right angles to it. The governor sat at the top, the three Candians on one hand, and the three counsellors on the other. All the rest of the company were obliged to stand. The Candians were conducted to the government-house from their lodging in three Dutch carriages borrowed for the occasion. They insisted that the chariot doors should be kept open, that they might not appear like prisoners in a place of confinement; and it was with much difficulty that they were persuaded to allow the coachmen to sit on

the boxes, in a more elevated situation than themselves. The ambassador delivered a long message from his sovereign to the governor, standing in an erect posture without any action, and singing in a monotonous tone, like a schoolboy repeating a task in a language which he does not understand.

The Candians paint bows, arrows, and walking sticks very neatly, and varnish them highly. They manufacture a coarse soft paper of the bark of trees, and make gold chains, rings, and other ornaments.

The Malabars, who occupy one half of the coast, and form one half of the subjects of the British government in Ceylon, differ greatly from their neighbours the Cingalese. They are stouter, more active, and enterprising, but less innocent, and more fraudulent. Originally emigrants from the Indian peninsula, their language, manners, and religion continue the same as when they first settled in the island; and they even contend that they preserved the Tamul, or Malabar, tongue in greater purity than it is to be found in any part of Hindoostan.

It is mentioned that, on the arrival of the Portuguese in Ceylon, they found it peopled by only two classes of inhabitants, the Bedahs occupying the northern, the Cingalese the southern, parts of the island. But it is probable that, even then, the Malabar race had obtained a footing in the country, as there is no tradition extant of the Cingalese

having ever inhabited those parts now possessed by their Hindoo neighbours.

Their clothing is entirely composed of white calico and muslin. The dress of the men is a piece of either of these kinds of cloth, wrapped round the loins, and reaching down to the ankles, a light turban tied loosely round the head, and large bunches of ear-rings. They encourage the aperture made in the flap of the ear to extend to an extraordinary size, so that a man's hand may pass through it, the lower parts being stretched until they touched the shoulder. The ear-rings measure eleven inches in circumference, and in each of them is often set a single precious stone, most commonly a ruby. Persons of the higher ranks occasionally wear white sleeved waistcoats, with gold buttons of a small size. The lower orders are often destitute of turbans.

The dress of the women consists of a single piece of muslin, folded round the waist, hanging down instead of a petticoat, and thrown over one shoulder to conceal the breasts. Those ladies who put it on with taste leave one leg nearly up to the knee, as well as one shoulder, bare; and let the garment fall upon the other leg down to the ankle. The fashion is graceful and becoming, much handsomer than that of the Cingalese, which appears to have been borrowed from their first European conquerors the Portuguese. Nothing is worn on the head: the hair is neatly combed, anointed with

oil, and turned up before and behind. Small ear-rings are worn in the higher as well as lower parts of the ear: but few of the women have the apertures extended to so great a size as the men. The higher classes wear a profusion of gold bracelets, necklaces, and rings on their ankles, toes, and fingers. Some wear similar ornaments in the nose. Children are not clothed until past five or six years of age; and the boys are left longer naked than the girls. But the latter have a modesty piece of silver, of the shape of a fig leaf, fastened round the waist with a silver cord; and the former are decorated with a *lingam*, resembling a child's whistle with two bells.

A considerable number of this race prefer the Mahometan religion, and are generally distinguished by the name of Moors, or *Lubbies*. One street, in the extensive village beyond the pettah of Columbo, is entirely inhabited by people of this description. They follow the occupations of pedlers, jewellers, taylors, fishermen, and sailors. Many of them speak Portuguese and Cingalese, as well as Malabar. Their women are scarcely ever allowed to be seen by strangers. Even when they are exhibited at a marriage ceremony, they are stationed in an inner chamber and closely veiled. When a man has occasion to transport his wife from one place to another, if he cannot afford the expence of a palanquin, he places her cross-legged upon a bullock, so completely covered from head to foot, with a white sheet,

that not a particle of her skin can be discerned, nor can she see what way she is going. The husband walks by her side.

The Malabars, who have not been converted to Christianity, continue the practice of burning their dead. The corpse, wrapped in muslin, without any coffin, is carried, with great solemnity, in an open palanquin to the place where the funeral rites are performed. The procession is accompanied with burning torches, Indian drums, and *chanque* shells, which sound like a horn. When the party comes within view of the funeral pile, the bier is laid down for a short time, and the priest, or brahmin, offers up a prayer for peace to the manes of the deceased, and comfort to his surviving relations. They then proceed to the pile, and, after marching once in silence round it, lay the body on the wood, reclining on its back, with the legs crossed, and the face exposed. The people then form a skreen around it with a web of white calico: the eyes are sealed with a red paste like clay; water, rice, ground cocoa-nut, and some pieces of money, are thrown upon the body; and the priest offers up additional prayers. The legs of the body are then stretched out; it is turned round with its face upon the wood, and completely covered and concealed from view by billets of wood placed over it in regular layers. The eldest son, or nearest relative of the deceased, walks three times round the pile, carrying an earthen vessel full

of water on his left shoulder, and a lighted torch in his right hand. He is followed by the priest, who blows a *chanque*, and, after once walking round, pierces the water-pot with the sharp end of the shell. This operation he repeats at each turn, until he has formed three openings in the vessel, through which the water gushes out, as the mourner walks along. At last, another person comes behind him, and, taking hold of the brittle vessel, dashes it in pieces on the ground. Then the relative, turning his back to the pile, puts the torch to the wood. He prostrates himself on the earth, and kisses the ground. The priest, and all the other relations, follow his example. They are then led away from the scene of the solemnity, without being permitted to look back; and the people, who remain, add fire to the pile, which is soon involved in flames.

The ashes are gathered into a heap: a green bough, or stick with a flag, is planted by its side; and the relations occasionally pay visits to the place.

The ceremony called swinging to recover cast, which is common over all India, is likewise sometimes practised by the Malabars in Ceylon. One, however, which took place at Columbo on the ninth of August, 1799, having been attended with disagreeable circumstances, government interposed its authority to prevent the ceremony in future, and it has not been repeated there since that time.

A strong beam was fixed upright in the ground, and a

transverse piece of wood moved on a pivot on the top of it. To this hooks, ropes, and pulleys, were attached for the purpose of suspending the victim. In the first place a sheep was sacrificed, and raised by the tackling to the summit of the pole. When it was lowered down, the devotee was laid on his breast, and two large hooks inserted through the integuments of his back, just under the shoulders. While the necessary incisions were making, a great noise was kept up with drums and pipes, to drown the cries of the sufferer, if pain should chance to draw forth an involuntary complaint. Unfortunately too deep a cut had been made in the centre of the cross beam, and it giving way, the man fell down soon after he had been suspended, and was killed upon the spot. The people immediately attributed this fatal accident to the evil eye of a Moorman, who was standing near the scene of the ceremony; and attacking him with fury, they would certainly have put him to death had he not been rescued from their hands by the interposition of some English officers. Many of the Indian spectators, affecting to feel the displeasure of the Almighty, cut their sides with knives, and put pieces of iron through them, in the same manner that the hooks were inserted in the victim. That evening the yearly feast was not celebrated, and its place was assumed by lamentation and mourning.

On occasions of this nature, the suffering is most commonly endured voluntarily. When a man is labouring under

a severe disease, he makes a vow, that if he recover he will make this sacrifice. Another, who has no children, does the same in hopes of his wife proving fruitful. Sometimes a person receives money for allowing himself to be offered up in this manner; and sometimes one man undertakes to suffer for another.

A considerable number of free Malays reside in Ceylon, particularly at Columbo. Many of them are princes and people of rank, who have been banished from their native countries Sumatra and Malacca by the Dutch governments there. They are of a lighter colour, more inclining to copper, than that of any other natives of India: broader, and more robust, but not taller than the Ceylonese. Their heads are compressed, and their noses flattened; their hair either cut short or fastened up with a comb. Their dress is graceful, in the Turkish or Persian style. The men wear a coloured handkerchief about the head, a close waistcoat buttoned round the neck, long wide silk drawers, and a long open gown, fastened close at the wrists, and half way up the arm, with nine gold buttons to each sleeve. Sometimes they put on sandals, but more frequently walk with their feet bare. The women wear a kind of short cotton bodice, which binds up their breasts, a long piece of muslin like that of the Malabars, and a loose plaid, or mantle, thrown over one shoulder like a sash.

The Malay soldiers wear the same uniform as our king's

regular regiments, excepting the article of shoes, which has not yet been afforded them. Their native officers, however, wear boots, and dress, in other respects, in the same manner as their English commanders. They all profess the Mahometan religion, and are now peaceable and obedient subjects of the British government.

They were not considered in that light by the Cingalese during the Dutch government The character which they bore for violence and dishonesty caused a constant terror throughout the settlements on our first occupation of them. Our government, therefore, ordered them to take up their abode in such of the principal stations as they chose to fix upon. It increased the small corps of Malays formerly raised to a regiment of one thousand strong, into which they entered with great readiness. Since that time there have been few complaints of outrages committed by men of that nation; and when they have been guilty of any crime, the prompt and impartial execution of justice on the criminals has occasioned no apparent discontent among their countrymen.

CHAPTER V.

RELIGION OF THE CINGALESE—WORSHIP OF BUDDHA—FABLE OF HIS BIRTH—DOCTRINE—TEMPLES AND PRIESTS—PORTUGUESE AND DUTCH ESTABLISHMENTS FOR THE INSTRUCTION OF THE NATIVES—REVIVAL OF THE LATTER BY THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT—PRESENT STATE OF CHRISTIANITY IN CEYLON.

ALL those Cingalese who have not been converted either to Christianity or Mahometanism profess the religion of Buddha, which is to be found in Ceylon in its greatest purity. The Buddhists, however, who live under the British government, do not adhere so strictly to the tenets of their faith as those who are subjects of the king of Candy. The generality of the people are, in the highest degree, ignorant, and possess no knowledge of the principles of any religion, beyond what is to be found in the most savage state. The worship of Buddha prevails likewise in the kingdoms of Ava and Siam, the inhabitants of which countries assert that they derived their religion from Ceylon.

The religion of Brahma prevailed all over Ceylon, until

the sixth century before Christ, when that of Buddha was introduced. It now exists in all the territories occupied by the Cingalese and the Candians; and that of Brahma still continues in the territories occupied by the Malabars; in which division of the island, both the language and the religion of the other sect are totally unknown.

The Cingalese believe that Buddha descended from the celestial regions, that he was miraculously conceived and born, and appeared upon earth as an instructor of religion and virtue, and a mediator between god and man.

Sir William Jones, on taking the medium of four several dates, fixes the time of Buddha, or the ninth great incarnation of Vishnu, in the year 1014 before the birth of Christ, or, at this period, (1807) 2821 years ago.

The Cingalese relate that Buddha existed as a god in heaven, and that at the request of his companions, the other gods and Brahmins, he consented to visit this earth in the form of a man. " Before he quitted the empyræum, four uncommon symptoms, about his person, warned him of his approaching change. The garment which he wore, and which had, hitherto, been spotless, appeared to be sullied: his garland of perpetually blooming flowers began to fade: the brightness of his visage became dim: a profuse perspiration issued from all his pores; and he vanished from the heavens, as a candle is extinquished by the wind.

" A queen, in whose womb the miraculous conception

took place, dreamed an extraordinary dream, which she related to her king. He, anxious to obtain an interpretation, called together a large assembly of Brahmans, who unanimously declared that one of the celestial order had left the empyreal regions, and that the child, to be born of the queen, should appear a new deity amongst men.

"On the day on which he was conceived, the earth was astonished with a blaze of wonders. Ten thousand worlds trembled, and the brightness of light shone round about them. Ten thousand blind received sight. Ten thousand dumb spake. Ten thousand deaf heard. The lame began to walk. All the beasts and birds, that were subdued or confined, were restored to liberty. The flames of hell, which blazed through thirteen hundred and sixty thousand worlds, were completely extinguished. The persons who suffered torments in these flames were relieved from pain, and felt as if they were plunged into a refreshing stream. The hungry were fed. The beasts and birds, that formerly devoured each other, played together as friends. The sick were cured of their diseases. The hatred of men was turned into love and friendship. The horses neighed. The elephants and lions uttered sounds of joy. The robes of the gods and Brahmans fell from off their shoulders. Six splendid colours beamed towards different points. The wind wafted odours. Rain fell in ten thousand worlds. The fountains were supplied with water. All

places of the earth were washed. The fowls of the air descended, and walked upon the ground without fear. The rivers overflowed their banks. The forty thousand seas of the ten thousand worlds became smooth as a lake, and wholesome to drink as a running brook: and flowers began to spring and bloom on their borders. The trees of every kind put forth their blossom, which filled the atmosphere with their fragrance, and fell, afterwards, like a shower of rain upon the earth.

"After nine months and fifteen days, the queen was seized with the pains of labour while walking in a garden. And reclining under a tree, called *halgoha*, covered with blossoms, she stretched out her hand to lay hold of one of the branches, and the branch stooped down to meet her. And the prince was born without spot or blemish."

In this manner, with other particulars, the birth of Buddha is related in the *poojawallia*, or book of adorations, written in the Cingalese language. It is impossible to read even the part which has been transcribed without perceiving some resemblance between it and the prophecies of the Old Testament. The precepts of Buddha bear fully as great an affinity to the laws of Moses, and the commandments of the gospel. In this they differ, that the followers of Buddha are prohibited from killing any animal whatever, from the meanest insect up to man; and from drinking any liquor, or eating any drug, of an intoxicating quality.

According to the legends of the country, Buddha is said to have visited Ceylon three times. On his first coming, the island was inhabited by devils, whom he drove away. On the second, he left the impression of his foot on Adam's Peak. The third time he consecrated sixteen different places for the purposes of divine worship. One of these is now overflowed by the sea, and snakes bred there are looked upon as objects of adoration. Another is a cavern near to Adam's Peak, now inaccessible. On all the rest, temples are still standing.

The Buddhists believe in the existence of one supreme God, and in a future state of rewards and punishments. Their religious rites are performed with more privacy and less splendour than those of the Hindoos. An essential part of their ceremonies is the offering of gifts, but the real nature of them is not yet distinctly known to Europeans. A hog is sometimes sacrificed by certain sects; and by others, oblations are made to an evil spirit. This latter ceremony was checked as much as possible by the Dutch government: but the usage is still practised in remote and obscure corners, where there prevails no dread of interruption.

The Mahavillaganga is held in the same religious veneration by the Ceylonese as the Ganges is by the inhabitants of Bengal. Its water is considered as effectual in washing away sin: but dead bodies are never thrown into it.

The Cingalese temples are chiefly buildings of modern structure, of a small size, having plain stone walls and tiled roofs, and not possessing any of the magnificence of Hindoo pagodas. The inside walls and ceiling are covered with historical paintings in miniature, and other ornaments in gaudy colours. In every complete temple, one colossal image of Buddha is represented in a sleeping posture; and a great many others of the same, sitting and standing, not larger than life. Statues of Vishnu and Shiva are likewise erected near to the large image of Buddha, the former painted blue, and the latter yellow. Curtains of printed cotton are hung before them, and only drawn when occasion requires. Like other Indian nations, they never form any image of the supreme Creator. A large cupola, or circular pyramid, raised upon a broad base, stands a near companion to every temple, and is said to contain some sacred relic.

No particular tribe is set apart for performing the rites of religion: but persons of different casts are eligible to the dignity of priesthood, when found properly qualified and disposed to take the usual vows. This privilege extends from the head cast of the *Vellalas*, to those, next in order, of the cowherds and fishers. A total renunciation of the world, and a life of celibacy, are considered as parts of their obligation. All their wants are supplied by the people, and the most beautiful females in the country attend them in their houses without wages. So great is the sanctity of their

character, that a virgin who has served in their abodes is considered by the young men as an enviable wife.

The dress of the priests of Buddha is a long yellow garment thrown over one shoulder, girded round the waist, and reaching down to the ankles. Their costume is the same both in the Candian and British territories. The hair of their heads is entirely shaved off; and they walk about, shewing their bare pates without any covering. But they either carry a round flat umbrella in their hands, or are attended by servants shading them with a talipot leaf.

"The religion of the countrey," says Knox, "is *idolatry*. There are many both *gods* and devils, which they worship, known by particular names, which they call them by. They do acknowledge one to be the supreme. This great supreme god, they hold, sends forth other *deities* to see his will and pleasure executed in the world. These inferior gods they say are the souls of good men, who formerly lived upon the earth. The *devils* are the inflicters of sickness and misery; and these they hold to be the souls of evil men.

"There is another great god, whom they call *Buddou*, unto whom the salvation of souls belongs. Him they believe once to have come upon the earth. And when he was here that he did usually sit under a large shady tree, called *Bogahah*. Which trees ever since are accounted holy, and under which with great solemnities they do to this day celebrate the ceremonies of his worship. He

departed from the earth from the top of the highest mountain on the island, called *Adam's Peak;* where there is an impression like a foot, which, they say, is his."

"The *pagodas* or temples of their gods are so many that I cannot number them. Many of them are of rare and exquisite work, built of hewn stone, engraven with images and figures; but by whom and when I could not attain to know, the inhabitants themselves being ignorant therein. But sure I am they were built by far more ingenious artificers than the *Chingulayes* that now are on the land. For the Portugueze in their invasions have defaced some of them, which there is none found that hath skill enough to repair to this day. The fashion of these *pagodas* is different; some, to wit, those that were anciently built, are of better workmanship, as was said before; but those lately erected are far inferior; made only with clay and sticks, and no windows."

"As for the images, they do not own them to be gods themselves, but only figures, representing their gods to their memories; and as such, they give to them honour and worship."

"The highest order of *priests* are the *tirinances;* who are the priests of the god *Buddou.*" "Their habit is a yellow coat, gathered together about the waist, and comes over the left shoulder, girt about with a belt of fine packthread. Their heads are shaved, and they go bare-headed,

and carry in their hands a round fan with a wooden handle." "They enjoy their own lands without paying *scot or lot* or any taxes to the king. They are honoured in such a measure, that the people, where ever they go, bow down to them as they do to their gods, but themselves bow to none."—"They are debarred from laying their hands to any manner of work; and may not marry nor touch women, nor eat but one meal a day, unless it be fruit and rice and water, that they may eat morning and evening: nor must they drink wine. They will eat any lawful flesh that is dressed for them, but they will have no hand in the death of it; as to give order or consent to the killing of it. They may lay down their order if they please; which some do that they may marry. This is done by pulling off their coat, and flinging it into a river, and washing themselves head and body, and then they become like other lay-men."

"Both king and people do generally like the Christian religion better than their own; and respect and honour the Christians as *Christians;* and do believe there is a greater god than any they adore."

But although the doctrines of Buddha be the peculiar religion of the Cingalese, at least one half of their number openly profess to be converts to Christianity. Of these, part belong to the reformed church of Holland, and part to the church of Rome. Both are alike ill instructed, and adhere

to the forms of their particular faith, more through the strength of habit than from any serious conviction.

The Christian religion was first planted in Ceylon by Nestorian missionaries from Persia. But of the churches established by them scarcely any vestiges now remain, or, if they do, they make a part of those buildings afterwards erected by the Portuguese.

That nation, having subdued the maritime parts of Ceylon, early in the sixteenth century (1505), completely obliterated every monument of Indian worship along its coasts. Out of the ruins of Hindoo pagodas, and temples dedicated to Buddha, they reared Romish churches, set up the banners of the cross, and compelled the natives of the country to adopt the forms of that religion, without consulting their inclinations. The inhabitants, however, being both ignorant and superstitious, soon became reconciled to a splendid shew of worship, which gratified their senses no less than the display of their former idols.

When Cingalese families were baptized, persons of the highest rank became the sponsors, and gave their names to the converts. Hence arose the numerous Portuguese names and titles, which are still prevalent amongst the natives.

A great body of the inhabitants now continue, voluntarily, firm in their adherence to the church of Rome. Fif-

teen swarthy priests, who have been educated at Goa, are established in the island. They are indefatigable in their labours, and are daily making proselytes. Their chapels, built and endowed by the contributions of the natives, are neat and well furnished. On the occasion of festivals, they sport bands of music, and superb illuminations.

In the beginning of the seventeenth century (1602), when the government of the United States wrested the coasts of Ceylon from the Portuguese, the doctrines of the reformed church of Holland became the established religion of the conquered territories. Although the Dutch did not, like the enthusiasts of Portugal, employ open force to propagate their religious faith, they adopted measures, which, in their general success, were no less effectual. A proclamation was issued that no native could be raised to the rank of a modelear, or admitted into any employment under the states, without subscribing the Helvetic confession, and professing to be a member of the reformed church. Accordingly the higher orders, both of the Cingalese and Malabars, and all who aspired to any dignity or office, immediately assumed the name of protestant Christians, a name which many of them still retain, without pretending to an intimate acquaintance with the doctrines of the gospel.

All the Dutch possessions in the island were divided into four large provinces, those of Columbo, Point de Galle, Trincomallee, and Jaffnapatam. The provinces were divided

into counties, and the counties subdivided into parishes, in each of which one protestant school was erected. The clergymen, sent from Holland, acquired a competent knowledge of the Ceylonese languages. Under their direction an academy was established at Columbo, where young men of promising abilities, taken from amongst the natives, were trained up to fill the offices of schoolmasters and catechists. Others were sent to Europe, where they received a fuller education, and returned to the island in holy orders. The Scriptures were translated. A printing press was erected at Columbo, where all the New, and great part of the Old, Testament were published, both in Cingalese and Malabar. The children were instructed in the principles of Christianity, and in reading and writing their own language. In every school-house was kept a register of baptisms and marriages solemnized within it. The protestants attended divine service there on Sundays, and other holidays; and the building answered all the purposes of a parish church. In a short time public worship was conducted with the same regularity, and resorted to by as great a proportion of the people as in any country in Europe. Although religious knowledge was not very perfectly conveyed to the lower orders of natives, many of the middle and higher ranks became as true believers in the doctrines, and as conscientious performers of the duties of Christianity, as those who adorn more enlightened regions.

To each school from two to four teachers were appointed, in proportion to the number of the scholars. The master highest in rank kept the registers, and he had, most commonly, two assistants, on whom devolved the labour of instructing. A superintending charge over every ten schools was committed to one catechist, whose attainments were superior to those of the schoolmasters, and whose business it was to perform a visitation once a month, to inquire into the conduct of the teachers, to examine the progress made by the scholars, and to exhort both parties to industry and diligence. As a guardian of a greater number of schools, there was likewise appointed one of the Dutch clergymen, who made the circuit of his diocese once a year. Of these clergymen there were generally from twelve to fifteen settled in the island; and nine of their number were entrusted with this service. On the occasion of his visitation the pastor was welcomed by the natives as a messenger of glad tidings, and treated with marks of real hospitality, as well as of high veneration and respect. A temporary building, of simple structure, was erected for his accommodation, and a table spread with fruits for his refreshment. Sheets of white calico were laid upon the ground before the door, and all the way leading from the resting-house to the school or church; and, on each side, an extensive curtain of palm leaves in the form of a fringe was suspended from the boughs of trees. White muslin covers were likewise thrown over the desk and

pulpit, and the stand for holding the baptismal water. A large congregation attended in their best apparel. The children were ranged in the front lines. The minister began the business of the day by worshipping God, and preaching to the people. Then took place the examination of the school, a business which was conducted by the catechist of the district, under the direction of the pastor. The higher classes answered questions relative to the catechism of D'Outreir, and the twelve articles of the creed. The lower classes repeated the catechism and prayers. The elder boys read a portion of the printed Cingalese Bible, and wrote with a stylus on slips of the palmyra leaf. The younger boys wrote with their fingers in sand spread upon a bench; and, as they formed the different characters, they sung their names and particular marks by which they are distinguished. The girls are neither taught to read nor write: but they must be able to repeat a certain number of prayers, and to explain the catechism and creed before they obtain permission to be married. After the examination of the youth was finished, the catechist questioned grown persons, who desired baptism; and as many of them as were found qualified were admitted to the benefit of that sacred institution. At the same time a great number of infants were baptized. The marriage ceremony was performed to a large circle of parishioners. All those who had been duly prepared received the holy communion. The registers were written. The usual saluta-

tions again passed between the minister and his people, and the visitation ended.

Early in the year 1796, all the Dutch settlements in Ceylon surrendered to the British arms. For nearly three years after they were taken possession of, the religious establishments of the natives occupied no part of the attention of the new government. The European clergymen became prisoners of war. The catechists and schoolmasters no longer received their salaries. The duties of public worship, and the education of the youth, began either to be feebly discharged or entirely neglected: and memorials, presented by the inhabitants on these subjects, were considered, by a military commander, either as objects in which he had no concern, or matters which he had not power to redress.

Towards the end of the year 1798, the honourable Frederic North arrived at Columbo, the first civil governor of the island, appointed by his majesty. He, following the instructions of an enlightened ministry, and prompted by his own virtues, to promote the happiness of the people committed to his charge, studied with minute attention every subject in which their interest was concerned. In adopting measures for the proper maintenance of the ecclesiastical orders, he carefully avoided all the errors which prevailed in the Dutch system. The dues formerly paid on the marriages of native Christians were abolished, being

a tax unfavourable to the morals, as well as the comfort, of an indigent people. A register of such marriages, however, continued to be kept in each school, for the prevention of bigamy, and the regular transmission of inheritances. All the schoolmasters were examined as to their qualifications and principles, and inquiries were made concerning the amount of salary, which might be sufficient to stimulate their zeal, and attach them to their employment. The monthly sum of eight rixdollars of Ceylon currency, or sixteen shillings sterling, was settled on each school; and an allowance of fifteen rixdollars per month was granted to each catechist. Every individual employed received a written appointment to that effect, and at the same time took the oath of allegiance to his Britannic majesty. The Dutch clergymen resumed the visitation of their different flocks, and their travelling expences were paid by government. Several preachers of the gospel were educated in the island, and licensed by the governor: others still better qualified were brought over from the coast of Coromandel, where they had been instructed in their profession under Danish missionaries. One of these was established as an officiating clergyman to the natives at each of the principal stations in the island, as Columbo, Negombo, Chilauw, Putlam, Manaar, Jaffnapatam, Molletivoe, Trincomallee, Batticaloe, Matura, Point de Galle, and Coltura. This preacher is instructed to perform divine service in one of

the churches within his province, every Sunday; to administer the ordinance of baptism; to solemnize marriages; to visit all the schools committed to his care, at least, three times in the year; to examine particularly the conduct and ability of the catechist and schoolmasters, and to inform his principal minutely of all that occurs.

Besides the institutions already mentioned, there is established at Columbo a very flourishing academy, composed of three distinct classes of young men, Cingalese, Malabar, and European. They are all taught English, as well as other languages, by experienced masters. The Cingalese scholars are sons of the modelears, and first class of people in the country. They are possessed of industry and docility, and discover a strong ambition to acquire learning. Every branch of instruction is received by them with delight; and they read the books put into their hands with a degree of transport, which ought to render the care of their education an object of public attention. Many of them converse fluently in English, and write, in a good style, very accurate translations from the Cingalese. The Bible being the chief model of their compositions, furnishes them with abundance of excellent expressions. These young men are well acquainted with the principles of Christianity, and sincerely attached to its divine author; and there is every reason to hope that when dispersed abroad amongst their countrymen, their influence and example will produce the most happy consequences.

The British interests in the island have already experienced essential benefits from the labours of this academy, which has not only, for a long time, supplied the place of a translators' office, but likewise furnished confidential interpreters to the various departments of government. The state of improvement at which some of the Cingalese youth have already arrived, affords an interesting specimen of the great advantages which would result to Ceylon from a proper attention to the education of the rising generation. The happiness of the people is, at all times, an important object in the eyes of a liberal administration; and when that object involves in it the deepest interests of the governing power, a steady regard to it is enforced by irresistible arguments. In the manner above stated the Dutch ecclesiastical establishment was revived and improved under the benevolent directions of Mr. North. Christianity once more began to wear a flourishing aspect. The inhabitants were fully sensible of the attention which the governor paid both to their spiritual and temporal interests. The whole country resounded with expressions of loyalty, and every countenance denoted happiness and contentment.

The only addition which appears wanting to complete the ecclesiastical establishment of Ceylon is a few clergymen of worth from England. There ought to be, at least, one in each of the larger provinces, whose employment should be to visit the native schools, to study the language

and dispositions of the people, to gain a thorough knowledge of the preachers, catechists, and schoolmasters, to improve their professional attainments by sound instruction, and, by good example, to encourage them in the prosecution of their labours.

In the year 1801, the number of parish schools flourishing on the island amounted to one hundred and seventy; and the number of native protestant Christians exceeded three hundred and forty-two thousand. The Christians professing the religion of the church of Rome are supposed to be still more numerous.

At Columbo the highest ranks of natives profess Christianity; and such of them as have received the benefit of a good education are more conscientious and respectable than their heathen neighbours.

Perjury is a crime of which many of the lower orders have been accused. It is even said that, for a trifling sum of money, false witnesses may be procured to appear on any trial, to swear to the truth of facts of which they are entirely ignorant. But delinquencies of this nature never occur amongst the higher orders, nor amongst any persons who have been well instructed in the principles of Christianity.

The custom of several brothers marrying amongst them but one wife undoubtedly prevails amongst the poorer sort of people who are not Christians; and, although not sanctioned by any religion, seems approved by the immemorial

usages of the country. With *two* brothers the practice is extremely common. It originates in a desire of preserving property entire, and devolving it only on one branch of a family. When the number of brothers exceeds seven, or when the possessions are large, and can be easily divided, more than one wife is allowed them. Children born from marriages of this sort call each brother by the common name of father, and have no idea of their being more nearly related to one than another. Two sisters, however, are never married to one man, excepting in succession one after another.

The state of religion in Ceylon is very different from that of any country on the continent of India. Here the ancient form of worship is almost totally forgotten; and the inhabitants live in uninstructed ignorance, perfectly free both from prejudice and bigotry. They have so long wandered in darkness, that they gladly follow the least glimmerings of light. The first openings of religious knowledge are received by them with transport; and they look up, with adoration, to any person who bestows pains in endeavouring to teach them. The arguments, therefore, which have been advanced against attempting to introduce Christianity amongst the more polished nations of the East are entirely void when applied to the uncultivated people of this island.

There is no doubt that if ever the government of England pay attention to this subject, the religion of Christ will

become as clearly understood and as well practised in Ceylon as in any part of the king's dominions.

Early in the year 1803, instructions, in his majesty's name, were received at Columbo, directing that the expence of all the schools in the island should be limited to the amount of fifteen hundred pounds sterling per annum. This sum was not more than sufficient to support the different asylums for European orphans, and the academies for instructing the natives in the English language. The salaries, therefore, of all the country schoolmasters and catechists were once more suppressed: and the sum thus saved to government hardly amounts to one thousand eight hundred pounds sterling per annum. The virtue of public economy, however, is now directed towards a more productive channel; and it is to be hoped that the indigent teachers of Ceylon have again the prospect of being restored to their humble employments.

Early in the year 1805, three missionaries arrived at Columbo, having been sent from England under the protection of the British government. They are now studying the languages of the country; and, if they possess virtuous dispositions and persevering industry, they must be greatly delighted with the appearance of so rich a harvest, and cannot fail to become an invaluable blessing to the natives of the island.

The most effectual means of disseminating the blessings

of the gospel throughout the east would be for the Christians who go to those parts to live in a manner worthy of their profession. Had all the Europeans who have visited India been sincere and enlightened Christians, more numerous converts would have been made, without force or solicitation. The native servants never fail warmly to love a master who leads a christian life. They receive every lesson of religious instruction, which is offered to them by such a person, with delight and gratitude: and they naturally feel a desire to embrace a system of faith and practice, of the beneficial tendency of which they enjoy so comfortable and impressive an example.

Drawn by J. Cordiner. Engraved by T. Medland.

Flag Staff at Point de Galle.

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TOUR ROUND CEYLON.

CHAPTER VI.

JOURNEY FROM COLUMBO TO CALTURA, POINT DE GALLE, COGEI, BELLIGAM, MATURA, MULGEERELENNA, BADOOL, HEETATEEAH, AND TENGALLE—BUNGALOES—RIVER BOATS—SCHOOL-HOUSE—JEWEL TAX—CORAL—SHELLS—ELEPHANTIASIS—CHRISTIAN SCHOOLS—WOODY SCENERY—CINGALESE TEMPLES.

AT six o'clock A. M. on the 21st of June, 1800, the writer of this narrative left Columbo, to make the tour of Ceylon, in company with his excellency the honourable Frederic North, governor of the British settlements in the island; who was likewise attended by a party of gentlemen, consisting of James Dunkin, esq. one of the judges of the supreme court of judicature; James Sutherland, esq. registrar of that court; captain Robert Moubray, of his majesty's 80th regiment of foot, aide de camp; Thomas Farrell, esq. one of the judges of the fiscals' court; Mr. George Lusignan,

deputy registrar; Mr. Silvester Gordon, assistant in the office of secretary to government; John Orr, esq. garrison surgeon of Columbo; and ensign Robert Barry, of his majesty's Malay regiment, commanding an escort of sixty men of that corps, and twenty pioneers. The party was accompanied by one hundred and sixty palanquin bearers, four hundred *coolies*, or persons for carrying baggage, two elephants, six horses, and fifty *lascars* taking charge of four large tents.

We breakfasted in a little *bungaloe*, erected for the occasion, in the cinnamon garden on the banks of the river Vaiwella.

After enjoying a pleasant excursion, for an hour, in a covered boat on the river, we proceeded in the line of our journey to Morotto, only one mile farther on the direct road leading to Point de Galle, and ten miles from Columbo. Here a large *bungaloe* was constructed, displaying some degree of taste, as well as labour, and a profusion of ornaments. The sides of the building were formed of wooden pillars, between every two of which was fixed a St. Andrew's cross, all covered with red and white muslin, folded like the links of a festoon, and the two colours placed in alternate succession. A low belt of plated leaves encompassed the bottom of the edifice, producing the effect of a pedestal. Fine white calico supplied the place of ceiling, attached to which, crossing lines of beautiful moss formed rhombs and

squares, supporting blushing fruits, and displaying richness combined with elegance. Sheets of cocoa-nut leaves formed the external roof, and skreened us from the sun. An ornamental porch, shaped like a hollow square, stood forty feet from the bungaloe, connected with it by a canopy of white cloth. This gateway was composed of perpendicular and horizontal *bamboos*, large canes about one foot in circumference and twenty feet in length. These were decorated with the dark green and pale yellow leaves of the cocoa-nut tree, doubled together, and folded perpendicularly round the canes, tied at the lower ends, and bulging out towards the tops in the form of an urn, the two colours succeeding one another in the same manner as the red and white muslin about the columns of the banqueting hall. Here we enjoyed a comfortable repast during the heat of the day, and rested in a shady grove until half past three o'clock P. M., when William Boyd, esq. acting secretary to government, and Gavin Hamilton, esq. acting paymaster-general, who had accompanied us to this place, took leave, and set out on their return to Columbo. We proceeded in our palanquins from the village of Morotto to the river, a distance of half an English mile. Here the governor and all the party called at the native school, when the children assembled, repeated their prayers and catechism in the Cingalese language. Soese Perera, the second master, although blind, and otherwise infirm, performed the business of catechising with great

correctness, and much seeming satisfaction to himself. We then embarked in boats on a smooth and gently flowing stream confined by leafy borders, and after experiencing a pleasing elevation in the little voyage, landed about sun-set at Pantura, a village situate near the mouth of the river, which is there distinguished by the same name.

The rowers brought along with them a few boys accustomed to sing, and, when in the midst of the stream, requested the governor's permission to be cheered with their music. The greater part of the songs were grave and solemn, the voices soft and melodious. Some of the airs, however, resembled a smart and lively catch, the wit of which seemed to consist in the frequent repetition of the same word, with one syllable occasionally varied.

A large open boat formed the van, containing his excellency's guard of *lascoreens*, with their spears raised perpendicular, the union colours flying, and Ceylonese drums, called *tom toms*, beating. Then followed the governor in a barge, over which a canopy was raised, having the inside of the roof spread with white calico, decorated with strings of verdant moss and gaudy coloured flowers. This barge was formed of two long canoes supporting an inclosed stage, on which chairs were ranged, covered with sheets of white cloth, agreeably to the customs of the country. A train of boats, loaded with palanquins and bearers, composed the rear, and the whole line exhibited a tranquil and gratifying appearance.

The regular troops, and baggage *coolies*, continued their march by land. As we sailed along, the native Cingalese came down, in crowds, from the different villages to the variegated banks of the river; and men, women, and children saluted their governor with impressive tokens of homage and respect.

Our style of travelling was that of a moving camp, being obliged to carry with us every article of accommodation and convenience, in the same manner as if our journey had been through an uninhabited wilderness.

For about half a mile on the road extending from the fort of Columbo towards the south, the ground is perfectly flat, clear, and open. Afterwards the road to Galkisse, seven miles distant, is finely shaded by groves of cocoa-nut, areca, tamerind, lime, portia, banyan, and other trees, entwined, and interwoven with a rich variety of modest shrubs and parasitic creepers.

Neat hedges extend all the way on each side of the road, composed principally of the milk hedge, *pandaras odoratissimus*, and shoots of the *hibiscus populneus*, remarkable for the quickness of their growth. Straight cleared branches, carelessly driven like palisades into the ground, immediately take root, put forth buds, and, in a few months, are thickly crowned with leaves, forming a picturesque and elegant enclosure. The grass which surrounds the trees is covered with flowers springing spontaneously, the most conspicuous

of which are the *gloriosa superba*, *ixora coccinea*, Malabar periwinkle, with many varieties of jasmine, and convolvulus, the latter creeping on slender stalks to the summits of the loftiest hedges.

About two miles from Columbo in this direction stands a banyan tree of considerable size, one large branch of which descends perpendicularly, from the height of thirty feet, over the centre of the road, but has not been permitted to come down so low as to obstruct the path of the traveller.

For the first three miles, gentlemen's houses make their appearance here and there, on the left hand side of the road, having their fronts expanded for the reception of the sea breeze, the most welcome of all visitors in a tropical climate. No eminences of any considerable height are here to be seen.

The protestant school-house at Galkisse, erected under the Dutch government, is executed on the same plan as all the other buildings in the island applied to the same purpose. The walls are raised about five feet from the ground all round. On these stone pillars are raised, supporting a tiled roof; and the space between the columns is filled with small rails supplying the place of windows. All the furniture consists of stone benches built along the walls, and one chair and one desk, which the schoolmaster never uses, and the visiting pastor but seldom occupies.

The masters wear coats of a grave colour, of the ancient Portuguese and Dutch fashions, white vests, and a sheet of printed cotton in the place of breeches. The dress of the boys is a piece of calico girded about the loins. The girls wear short shifts, a folded cloth in room of a petticoat, combs in their hair, silver bracelets, and gold earrings.

A tax had been lately laid on the wearing of jewels, and other superfluous ornaments. One individual was charged two shillings sterling per annum, and all the members of a family only four shillings. Notwithstanding the apparent moderation of this assessment, the schoolmasters complained that it was the means of preventing the children from attending the school. They neither chose to appear abroad without their ornaments, nor to pay for a license to wear them. Among the native peasantry money is an extremely scarce and highly valuable article, insomuch that many an individual would consider it as a smaller hardship to deliver two bushels of pine-apples than to pay half the worth of them in silver. On our arrival at Pantura, a crowd of native Cingalese assembled round the house, where the governor took up his quarters, presenting a petition either for the alleviation or total suppression of the above-mentioned tax. Their behaviour corresponded exactly with the folly and innocence of children. A gentle expostulation appeased their murmurs, and they retired with as much contentment as if they had been loaded with favours.

The party at dinner this evening, at the governor's table, consisted of thirteen persons, including three native Malay officers belonging to the escort. Next morning at day-break the procession moved, and proceeded ten miles to Caltura. Here is a small fortification raised upon a mount, commanding the banks of a beautiful river: a large house for the commandant stands at the distance of one quarter of a mile from the fort, and adjacent to it is a neat village, chiefly in one street, built of stone with thatched roofs, inhabited by native Cingalese, and black descendants of the ancient Portuguese. The climate is cool, the place rural, and the situation pleasant. The house of the commandant was prepared for the reception of the governor; and the four tents were pitched in a verdant lawn for the accommodation of his retinue.

This day matters were arranged for the commencement of judicial business. On the 23d and 24th the courts sat, and finished all that was to be done without the occurrence of any unpleasant circumstances.

An avenue of teak trees leads from the high road to the house of the commanding officer; and rows of the same shade the principal street of the village. That species of timber flourishes in many parts of the island where it has been planted; and is likewise found growing wild in uncultivated forests.

At Caltura, as well as at almost every village on the

coasts of Ceylon, arrack is distilled, as an article of traffic, from juice extracted from the tops of the cocoa-nut and palmyra trees. The spirit is excellent, and large quantities of it are exported. But it is considered as inferior in quality to the arrack of Batavia, which is distilled from *paddee*, the name given in India to rice in the husk.

The distance from Columbo to Caltura is twenty-eight English miles, and an inland navigation is carried on between them by means of rivers connected together by canals.

On the 25th we left Caltura at day-break, rested during the heat of the day at Barbareen, and spent the night at Bentot, a place famed for the excellence of its oysters. These oysters are exactly of the same form as those which are common in England, and are frequently sent to Columbo, where they are esteemed a great luxury. Close to the resting house of Barbareen, a rocky promontory projects into the sea, divided into two mounts, the farthest of which is ornamented by a small mosque, and a grove of palms.

On the 26th we breakfasted at Vellitot, and, a little before sun-set, reached the *rest-house* of Ambulamgodda. Here the governor was received by major Hunter, of his majesty's 19th regiment of foot, commandant of Point de Galle, who had ordered dinner at this place, and entertained the party with great hospitality, until their arrival at the seat of his command, where his excellency's household was for a time established.

On the 27th we breakfasted at Hicadua, and entered the fort of Point de Galle at four o'clock in the afternoon, when the streets were lined with troops, who received the governor with presented arms; and a salute of nineteen guns was fired from the ramparts.

All the road from Columbo to Point de Galle, a distance of seventy-eight English miles, was decorated, on each side, by an artificial curtain of the long leaves of the cocoa-nut tree, hung like fringes on strings, supported on poles driven into the ground, and occasionally on living trees. In many places splendid porches, of the same materials, were erected across the way, voluntary testimonies of the high veneration which the inhabitants feel for their governor. At every stage temporary apartments were fitted up for his reception, some of them richly ornamented with muslin of various colours, rolled up, and combined into fanciful devices, in the style of philagree. Likewise at every river barges waited in readiness, dressed out with similar decorations.

The road from Columbo to Point de Galle lies chiefly close to the sea shore, the coast being low, exhibiting a sandy soil, luxuriant in the production of cocoa-nut trees, reaching to the water's edge, diffusing, in continued groves, a salutary and delightful shade, now and then intersected by gentle streams surrounded with pleasing scenery.

On the 28th at noon, his excellency held a levee in the government house, which was attended by all the Dutch and

English gentlemen belonging to the settlement. On the 29th divine service was performed in the garrison church. On the 30th the supreme court of judicature was opened, in due form, for the dispatch of business, which employed all its members until late in the evening of the 2d of August, when the labours of the session ended.

During the above-mentioned period the weather was frequently cloudy, attended with showers of rain: the climate extremely pleasant, similar to that of Columbo, and sometimes cooler in certain houses of the fort, from their being more exposed to the sea air. The moderate temperature of the air at both places is remarkable in those tropical situations, the one less, the other not more, than seven degrees from the equator, Farenheit's thermometer being frequently down at 72°, and never seen above 86°. In the mornings and evenings throughout the year no person wishes for a cooler or more delightful climate.

Many of the low and narrow streets, however, are often sultry, and much infested with *musquetoes*, a species of gnat, troublesome in various parts of India. Almost all the European inhabitants of Point de Galle live within the walls of the fort. Only a few large houses are built without it, extending along the shore towards the south. Cottages and hamlets, the abodes of the native Cingalese, are scattered about in all directions. That race appear in this place pretty much in an unadulterated state, intermixed with only an

inconsiderable portion of emigrants from other nations. The fruits and other productions of this soil do not differ from those of Columbo. *Coiar* ropes are manufactured here in great plenty from the stringy rind of the cocoa-nut; and a trade of some consequence is carried on in small craft. The principal articles exported are cocoa-nuts, cocoa-nut oil, areca-nuts, salt fish, pumplemoses, oranges, and cables.

The houses in the fort are large, commodious, and comfortably furnished. That of the commandant is a building of extensive dimensions, containing a suite of rooms, on the ground floor, both spacious and well proportioned; likewise a variety of apartments in an upper story with boarded floors; amongst which is a hall used for dancing, sixty feet in length, thirty broad, and eighteen high.

During the governor's residence in this garrison, he entertained the settlement with several public dinners, and one splendid ball and supper.

Upwards of one hundred poor and afflicted persons, amongst whom were many widows and orphans, received a temporary relief through the medium of a committee appointed for the purpose of superintending all the charitable establishments in the island: and several cases of private distress obtained a well-timed succour by the excellence of this praise-worthy institution. An extensive field is here opened to the watchful eye of benevolence; and great merit is due to the man who carries succour to those starving

J. Cordiner del.t

T. Medland sculp.t

View of Point de Galle from the South East.

families, whose feelings do not permit them to solicit charity.

The fort of Point de Galle, one mile and a quarter in circumference, is situate near the southern extremity of the island, on a low rocky promontory, from which its name is derived. Some of the bastions command the passage which leads into a tolerable harbour, the second in rank on the coasts of Ceylon. It is not large, but commodious and secure: except that the entrance is so choked up with rocks, that the channel, through which a ship must be steered, is very narrow, and cannot be attempted safely in the dark, unless by an experienced pilot. On the side opposite to the fort stand a reservoir of excellent water, and a wooden quay provided with every convenience for lowering casks easily into boats. The harbour is, however, susceptible of many improvements; and were it to become a place of much resort, these would, no doubt, be attended to.

It was here that, during the government of the United States, the cinnamon and other productions of the island were shipped for Europe; and it is still partly used for that purpose. Ships sometimes call there on their way to Columbo, and take in what cinnamon is raised in the districts of Galle and Matura: afterwards complete their cargo at the presidency, and, on some occasions, sail direct for England; on others, return to Madras, land the cinnamon there to be divided amongst different ships, and take in a

new lading. This latter method is only practised in the time of war, when it is not found convenient to allow the regular ships of the East-India company to touch at Columbo.

The works of Point de Galle are substantial and extensive: and it would be a place of great strength were it not overlooked by some adjacent eminences. One hill, at only the distance of musket shot, completely commands part of the fort: this might have been fortified, but it also is commanded by another. For these reasons a design was once formed to destroy all the fortifications of this place, except those batteries which immediately guard the entrance into the harbour. The fortress, however, as it now stands, is a sufficient protection against the inroads of the undisciplined Candians, who are not acquainted with the use of cannon, and understand but little of the European art of war.

All the country round is extremely hilly. At one view four ranges of mountains appear behind one another, richly clothed with wood. On every hand are large forests of cocoa-nut trees, and extensive tracts of thick *jungle*, frequently intersected by romantic foot-paths, winding both amongst the higher and the lower grounds.

The garrison consists of one hundred and twenty sepoys, and one hundred and twenty Malays, each commanded by one European officer, a small detachment of Bengal artillery, a commandant, fort adjutant, and garrison surgeon; to which may be added the master-attendant, or overseer of

the harbour, W. C. Gibson, esq. who treated our party with genuine hospitality. His house afforded us a constant scene of recreation and amusement, which was enhanced in value by the gratifying attentions of an amiable hostess.

Immense quantities of white coral lie along these coasts. Here great part of the fortification is built of it; and we often discern, beneath our feet, a variety of beautiful specimens forming part of the pavement. On rocks close to the shore are seen trees of coral in complete perfection, as large and elegant as are anywhere produced. But their texture is so delicate, that the utmost care is necessary in packing them to be conveyed without injury from one place to another.

There are likewise found here upwards of fifty species of small shell-fish. Amongst these is a curious echinus covered with moveable spines, each three inches in length, and of the thickness of a crow's quill. The animal has the same power of moving them as the porcupine possesses over his armour. The spines are rough to the touch, like the beards of barley, and as hard as stone, but united to the echinus by a soft ligament, by means of which they are rendered pliable, and can be turned in any direction it pleases. The colour of it is entirely black, excepting the red suckers, which are the means of procuring its food, and fastening it to the rocks. The mouth is as white as the purest ivory,

and of the same form as that of the common sea urchin, or *echinus esculentus.*

The disease known by the name of *elephantiasis* prevails much among the poorer sort of inhabitants at this place, and is called by them the *Cochin* leg, from the frequent occurrence of the disorder at that settlement. The apparent seat of this disease is from the bending of the knee downwards to the ankle. The leg becomes of one size from top to bottom, sometimes marked with circular wrinkles; and the swelling reaching over the foot, so as to leave about an inch or little more of it seen, gives the leg the shape of that of an elephant, from which resemblance the distemper derives it name. Sometimes one leg, and sometimes both, swell to a prodigious size, often four times the natural bulk. The disorder is thought to proceed from low meagre food, and bad water, and has, hitherto, been considered as incurable. Any Europeans who have been affected by it have always been found labouring under the greatest indigence. Medical men have discovered this swelling to be an effect of fever, which returns on the patients monthly. It is not, however, a disorder from which immediate danger is apprehended: persons suffering under it often live many years, and continue performing their usual avocations in otherwise apparent health. The nature of this distemper is completely different from that of the *berry berry*, which is a

malady more rapid in its progress, beginning in the legs like the worst species of dropsy, afterwards affecting the whole system, and generally attended with fatal consequences, but, in a great measure, proceeding from similar causes. It first became known to the English surgeons in Ceylon, by breaking out in a regiment of Madras native infantry which had served several years in the island. It raged amongst them with great fury, carrying off one half of their number, and continued its ravages until the remainder were transported to the coast of Coromandel, where change of air and a more generous diet contributed to their recovery. Rice was almost their only food in Ceylon; mutton being sold there at so extravagant a price that they could not afford to purchase it; beef forbidden by their religion; and the curry stuffs, to which they had been accustomed, not being procurable for money.

On the 3d of August, at six o'clock A. M. the governor and suit set out from Point de Galle. As usual, the troops were drawn up, forming a lane from the government-house to the outermost barrier of the fort, and a salute of nineteen guns was fired from the ramparts.

About the distance of two miles south-east of Galle we are presented with an excellent view of the fort and surrounding scenery. The chain of rocks covered with wood, which forms the east side of the bay, affords a noble and

romantic prospect, stretching out from the shore in the shape of a crescent, and enclosing the watering-place near its centre.

After travelling two miles farther, we passed by the ruins of a large house, built by one of the Dutch governors in a singularly strange situation. Lying under the brow of a rocky mountain, which denies it either the sight or influence of the sea, it is so surrounded on the other sides by hills and thickets, that a breath of wind cannot blow upon it from any quarter. The taste of the Hollanders, in this country, in the selection of ground for building, is exactly the reverse of that of the English. The former make choice of low, sheltered, often swampy positions, where the only object to be seen is a stagnant pool; while the latter rear their villas on the summits of cleared eminences, where refreshing gales allay the fervour of the torrid zone, and the eyes are delighted with the rich prospects and perpetual verdure which adorn this delicious island.

The road conducted us through a wide forest of cocoas, which, with only a few interruptions, extends all the way to Matura, a distance of thirty English miles. Between Galle and Cogel, which is only a space of eight miles, we crossed two small rivers. In general we cannot see farther than a few furlongs into the country; and even where the prospect opens, there is nothing to attract attention but hills covered

with lofty trees, rising from the midst of impervious brushwood, and large monkeys, of various colours, sporting amongst the wav gtops of the cocoas.

Bunches of corallines, and rocks of white coral, appeared lining the shore. The enclosures about the villages are entirely built of the latter, chiefly of that species which resembles honey-comb.

After breakfasting at Cogel, for the sake of varying our amusement, we embarked on the lake. The boats fitted out for our accommodation were formed, some of two, some of three, parallel canoes, fastened together at a small distance from one another, supporting a flat stage, on which were erected pillars, and an arched roof of *bamboos.* The pillars were dressed with cocoa-nut leaves, and the inside of the canopy was lined with white calico, decorated in the usual style, with moss and flowers. Seated comfortably on chairs, and rowed on a smooth basin, we enjoyed the beauties of the surrounding scenery for an hour; and, at the end of the voyage, met our palanquins advanced two miles on the way to Matura.

The lake is three miles in length, and, in some places, one mile broad. It winds beautifully, in a serpentine form, often breaking off into little creeks and coves. The prospect opens gradually, displaying ranges of delightful hills elegantly adorned with luxuriant foliage. Three curious rocks soon present themselves, rising out of the centre of the basin,

decorated with a few scattered shrubs. Islands extend on both sides, and one appears more remarkable than the others, being farther detached from the surrounding land. Some of these exhibit fine rocks intermingled with verdant bushes, which often seem to form their bases. Along all the borders, trees and shrubs grow amongst the water: the branches drop down, and shoot up like new plants, completely concealing the soil from which they originally proceed. The banks of the lake nearest to the sea are lined with broad belts of cocoa-nut trees; but on the inland sides none of these are to be seen. The other trees, however, which everywhere abound, exhibit a still more agreeable and picturesque appearance.

On the north-west it lies about one furlong from the sea, and is separated from it on the south-east only by a bar of sand, which during the rains is washed down by the lake discharging its waters into the ocean.

Soon after entering the fertile province of Matura, the country afforded beautiful and extensive prospects, terminated by luxuriant mountains. The road winding amongst wooded hills, by its ascents and declivities, added to the variety, and increased the enjoyment which proceeds from this sort of travelling.

Bungaloes were erected as resting-places; and the road was ornamented by curtains of cocoa-nut leaves, in the same manner as between Columbo and Point de Galle. At

all the villages the natives were drawn up by the head men, on each side of the road, many of them dressed in coats of European cloth, and armed with swords and spears, saluting the governor as he passed along.

The British traveller is here struck with the similarity of the scenes which present themselves to his view to the delightful private parks of his native country, which have been laid out under the direction of the refined and cultivated taste of their noble proprietors.

Sometimes venerable and majestic trees formed a shade over our heads: sometimes we travelled amidst flowering shrubs; sometimes through cultivated meadows and fields of smiling corn. The trees, the plants, and the verdure, often resemble the most beautiful species in our native country; and the combination of all these ornaments discloses an elegance of skill unrivalled by the efforts of human genius. Nature breathes around an eternal spring: flowers, blossoms, and fruits adorn the woods at all seasons. A vast wilderness of noble plants rises in ten thousand beautiful landscapes; displaying a majesty and richness of scenery, and raising emotions of delight and admiration, which cannot easily be described.

About a quarter of a mile before we reached Belligam, which is half way to Matura, we went one furlong off the road to the right to see the Cingalese temple of Buddha, called Agrabuddhaganni. It is situate on the summit of a

little hill, to which an ascent is formed by a flight of stone steps. A body of priests invited us to enter, and seemed much pleased with our attentive observation of the images and paintings. They likewise expressed satisfaction in seeing us take some sketches from them. The sanctuary which contains the idols is enclosed by an inner wall; and both this and all the other walls within the temple are covered with hieroglyphic paintings, exhibiting the history of their kings, and their wars, their religion, and their priests. A painter reads the stories in Cingalese books, and then pourtrays the subjects on the wall, according to the pictures which they form in his imagination. The drawings are merely outlines coloured, without any shading; and a small specimen of them is given in the annexed plate over the image of Buddha, sufficient to shew the general style of these performances. To delineate all the historical paintings which the temple contains would require the labour of several months.

On the left of the door a large statue of Buddha reclines at full length upon a pedestal, his right hand under his head resting on a pillow, his left hand lying by his side. A long yellow garment thrown over the left shoulder reaches down to the ankles; the feet, the right arm, and half of the chest being left uncovered. The flaps of the ears are represented open, like those of the Malabar people in Ceylon, the hair woolly or curled, and touching his head is a crown of various colours resembling a flame of fire. A red sash hangs over

J. Cordiner del.

BUDDHA RECLINING IN THE TEMPLE OF HEETATEEA.

London. Published August 10. 1807, by Longman, Hurst, Rees, & Orme, Paternoster Row.

J. Cordiner del.   T. Medland sculp.

Cingalese Temple of Agrabodiganni near to Belligam

Publish'd 1 June 1807, by Mess.rs Longman, Hurst, Rees & Orme, Paternoster Row, London.

the left shoulder above the garment, reaching down nearly as far as the wrist. The image is twenty-eight feet long and six broad, occupying almost all the length of the inner chamber. On the wall behind it a large party of disciples are drawn up in a regular line; and on the pedestal below are groups of the emblematical sketches above mentioned.

In the north end an upright statue of Buddha stands upon a pedestal, supported on the right by Shiva, and on the left by Vishnu, represented of a blackish hue. All the other images are painted yellow. On the west side is another statue of Buddha exactly resembling that in the north end, and in the south end is an image of the same deity sitting cross-legged, and shaded by the expanded hood of a cobra capello of immense size. Two statues of a different form stand one on each side of the south door, guarding the entrance into the inner chamber; but they do not appear to possess any symbolical allusion, and seem placed there merely to ornament the portal.

Within the same enclosure, and nearly adjoining to the temple, is erected a monument of solid stone, in form resembling the cupola of St. Paul's church in London. An ornamental fabric of the same description accompanies every temple dedicated to the same divinity; it is called the tomb of Buddha, and celebrated as containing some sacred relic.

After ascending one half of the flight of stairs leading

to the temple, there appears a large *bungaloe* raised on a flat pavement, where the people assemble on sacred days to receive instruction from their teachers. The temple is consecrated to higher purposes, and used only for the exercise of devotion and the presenting of oblations.

Not far from this place of worship, but overlooking the public road on the opposite side, stands a large statue sculptured out of a solid rock, and known by the name of *Crusta* or *Coutta Rajah*. First an alcove is hewn out, and then the figure raised in high relief, twelve feet in height, and of a proportionable breadth. The dress on the body resembles a coat of mail; and the cap on the head bears the form of a mitre. This figure has been taken notice of by almost all travellers in Ceylon, and is said to have been formed in honour of an Indian prince, who subdued this part of the island; but the history of this country is so much involved in obscurity and fable, that little credit can be given to the traditions concerning it. On a flat rock fronting this figure a row of small holes is dug out, forming a semicircle, in which, it is said, the soldiers grounded their spears when they came to pay their adorations to the statue of their deceased commander.

At Belligam there is a small bay of a picturesque appearance, formed by two beautiful points of land, enclosing several bare rocks, and two wooded islands, on one of which thirty cocoa-nut trees can be counted. A considerable

number of *doneys*, or small vessels, and fishing boats lie along the shore. Here likewise is a very populous village, the inhabitants of which live almost entirely by fishing: the revenue of which yields to government ten thousand pounds sterling per annum.

The right of fishing, on every part of the coast of Ceylon, is let to men of property and credit for very considerable sums. By these means, fish, although extremely abundant, is rendered an expensive article of food; and a ship sailing along the coast is prevented from being supplied with that luxury. The fishermen receive orders not to approach any vessel, lest they might attempt to defraud the renter by a false statement of the quantity of fish which they caught. The timidity of their disposition is such that they never infringe this regulation while there appears any chance of detection.

The fish, immediately on being landed, are sold by public auction, in lots, in an open shed erected for that purpose; and one-third of the produce is appropriated for the benefit of the renter. Fishmongers attend the sale with ready money in their hands, make purchases at a price comparatively moderate, and retail in the market at a great advance of profit. It is a matter of curiosity to see such an immense quantity of fish disposed of in so short a time; the cargoes of one hundred boats being often sold in one quarter of an hour. No fish in India is eatable, without having

been salted, after it has been six hours out of the water. All, therefore, which are not vended the night or morning they are caught, must be cured without loss of time.

There is a Christian school here, as well as at almost every stage which we have passed. When troops are on a march, these buildings are generally used for their accommodation: but this one, being in a ruinous condition, was applied to meaner purposes, and occupied as a stable. The schoolmasters had erected a shed near to it as a place for instructing their scholars.

Colonel Charles Baillie of his majesty's 51st regiment, who had been lately appointed to command the garrison of Point de Galle, accompanied the governor to Belligam, where an elegant refreshment was prepared; and we were pleasantly recreated during the sultry hours of the day. At four o'clock P. M. we resumed our journey through a hilly country covered with brushwood; and at seven reached the fort of Matura, where his excellency dined at the commandant's, and, after dinner, retired to a house fitted up for his reception and temporary residence.

On the west side of the *Neel ganga*, or blue river, stands a square redoubt neatly built of stone, the gate of which communicates with two wooden bridges, leading across the water to a fortification of larger dimensions. The works of this fort have been begun on a regular and handsome plan, but are only half completed. Consisting at present of two

points and a half of a pentagonal star, they defend the place as far as it is immediately connected with the land. But it lies entirely open both towards the sea and the river, and might be entered by an enemy with great ease from either quarter. A ridge of sand hills covers a passage along the sea shore, and the river might be crossed with rafts or boats at places where none of the guns could be brought to bear. The two wooden bridges are connected together by a small island, lying near to the west side of the river. They are built of strong piles driven into the sand, and covered with planks, affording a passage of sufficient breadth for carriages. But there is no balustrade to prevent an overturn, so that the passage over it must be hazardous.

The garrison at present consists of one English captain commandant, and one hundred Malay soldiers. The guns of this fort were some time ago removed to Point de Galle, and none are, at present, mounted. In the centre of it is a large square formed of good houses, and a neat protestant chapel. From this a fine street extends along the banks of the river towards the sea, occupied by families of Dutch extraction. There are likewise several comfortable, well-furnished houses, ranged on the opposite side, at a greater distance from the river. One, apparently the best of these, is inhabited by the assistant to the agent of revenue for the district.

Here are two plantations of cinnamon, each upwards of

one mile in circumference, but now in a state entirely uncultivated, from which cause their produce is of a quality inferior to that of Columbo. Matura, although situate close to the sea, possesses all the advantages of an inland appearance, being almost everywhere encompassed by groups of trees, of many species, having their foliage elegantly intermingled, and displaying the rural beauty of Caltura, enriched with a greater variety of rising grounds, and a wider profusion of luxuriant scenery.

On the 5th of August the writer set out, attended only by servants, to visit the christian schools in the interior parts of this province. On leaving the fort of Matura we travelled for half a mile through a rich avenue of areca and plantain-trees, intermixed with the houses of the natives. We then ascended a steep hill; where the road is cut through a mixture of stone and clay: on the left we were presented with a beautiful and extensive prospect, comprehending a long winding of the river, fields of *paddee*, little hills covered with wood, and a chain of distant mountains. Here seven large elephants passed by us with their riders returning from Kotawy, to which place they had carried ropes, to be employed for the purposes of an approaching capture of their own species. The road now descended to the sea shore, and again rose amongst the hills, varying, in a similar manner, all the way to Dickwell; twelve miles from Matura, and half way to the fort of Tengalle. This part of the country

produces a supply of rice more than sufficient for the consumption of its own inhabitants, and likewise abounds in all the fruit-trees common to the island. The soil seems favourable to cultivation. Many fine fields appeared covered with growing *paddee:* and husbandmen were employed on other grounds not then sown.

Dickwell affords a tolerably good *rest-house*, built of stone and tiled; and adjoining to it is a school-house of the same materials. Behind these a narrow inlet of the sea winds into the country like a stream, and is commonly called a salt water river.

Three miles from Matura we passed Dondra-head, the most southerly point of the island, apparently a low strip of land covered with cocoa-nut trees; but a higher and more rugged promontory is seen about one mile to the eastward of it.

On a flat green, five hundred yards from the extremity of Dondra, stands the poor remains of a Hindoo temple, probably once the most magnificent structure in the island of Ceylon. About two hundred stone pillars, some neatly cut with bases and capitals, others as rough as they come from the quarry, are still seen in an erect position. A long avenue of these stretches directly towards the sea, intersected by other rows extending to the right and left. About the centre of them stands the stone frame of a door, composed of two square pillars supporting a lintel, carved on one face, in a style similar to the inner portals of other Hindoo pago-

das, exhibiting heads of stern aspect, and borders of running foliage. There are likewise shattered relics of several images strewed among the ruins: one of these is the head of an elephant of the size of life, not badly sculptured. Here a deep well is covered by a flat stone containing a square aperture, with a carved impression of a foot on each side of it: this place was constructed for the sake of cleanliness, at a time when the pagoda was frequented by multitudes of people. Near to it stands a *lingam*, or alter to *Mahadeo* in his generative character, having a canopy of leaves erected over it, apparently still frequented and revered.

Close to this is now raised a temple of Buddha distinguished by the title of *Devinura Maha Vishnu Dewaley*, similar to that of *Agraboddhaganni*, but of a smaller size. Adjoining to it stands a humble sanctuary, built of mud with a thatched roof, dedicated to Vishnu. It is divided into several apartments, hung round with printed calico exhibiting various imaginary deities. Amongst these is *Carticeya*, the tutelar god of Cattergam, a celebrated pagoda, at no great distance, within the territories of the king of Candy. This is a human figure with six heads, and twelve arms, riding sideways on a peacock, holding a living serpent in its mouth. Before it stands a table and a basin, where the worshippers present their offerings. At the same place is an ancient stone image of Ganesa, in miniature, having the head of an elephant with the body of a man.

Drawn by J. Cordiner

Engraved by T. Medland

Vishnu and Cartikeya in the Temple of Dewinuara Maha Vishnu Dewawley

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The Cingalese people repair to this temple to make vows, and to be sworn previous to being examined in courts of judicature; and, it is said, the place impresses them with so much awe that they seldom violate an oath which is taken there. The site of all these buildings is surrounded by a thick grove of cocoas, intermixed with a few other trees, extending to the farthest extremity of the land, where appears a small pillared building, placed there as an appendage to the larger pagoda. Many stones were carried away from this place, during the governments of the Portuguese and Dutch, as materials for erecting the fortifications of Matura.

We left Dickwell twenty minutes before four o'clock P. M. taking the road which leads towards the interior of the island; and at seven o'clock arrived at Kahawatta *(the saffron garden)*, where a square of little cottages is reared for the accommodation of travellers, in the midst of a very wild and romantic country. This is said to be a distance of twelve English miles, but seemed shorter and less tiresome than the former stage. The road is hilly, rugged, and much cut up by the rains, so that the palanquin-bearers were obliged to choose their steps with caution the greater part of the way. To travel these broken paths on horseback would be extremely dangerous, if not impracticable. Advancing into the country, the situation becomes more elevated, and the prospects more extensive. Great part of

the way, however, the view is much obstructed by wood; but, on the summits of the rising grounds, there are charming prospects, beautiful fields of pale green *paddee* winding in the valleys, and a magnificent scenery of surrounding hills richly clothed with trees. There is neither a barren rock nor a bleak mountain to be seen in this luxuriant isle. The climate at Kahawatta is cooler than that of the country below; and the native Cingalese inhabiting these higher districts advised us not to drink the water without warming it, saying, that, when taken in its frigid state, it was apt to occasion intermittent fevers. To the north-east of this sequestered choultry, there appears a rich and charming landscape terminated by the huge rock of Mulgeerelenna.

To this place we repaired next morning, spent the greater part of the day there, and returned to Kahawatta in the evening. The distance between them is six English miles, the road hilly and rugged, affording many delightful prospects, rich in mountains, rocks, and trees.

At Kahawatta there is a wooden bridge, at present, in bad repair, thrown over a small river, which runs all the way to Malgeerelenna. Portable covered stages were placed along the road, a few yards distant from one another, supporting newly lighted fires, which are kindled every night for the purpose of hemming in some herds of wild elephants destined to be driven into a *khraal*, or enclosed snare, prepared for their reception in the province of Geereway. Se-

Drawn by J. Cordiner

Ulgerrikanna seen from Kohawate

veral long arched passages appeared formed, amidst the thickest of the *jungle*, of twigs and branches entwined, just large enough to admit a man scrambling on his hands and knees. These we concluded to be places of refuge for the hunters to elude the pursuit of the wild inhabitants of the forest. Sheaves of *paddee*, lately cut down, were placed on wooden stands elevated seven feet from the ground, over which a roof of cocoa-nut leaves was supported by stakes; so that the corn was, at once, removed from the damp ground below, and sheltered from the rain above. When perfectly dry it is spread in circles on the ground, and trodden out by the feet of buffaloes or oxen. A variety of grand and beautiful rocks attracted particular attention: some of them huge mountains; others large masses of stones piled one above another amidst enlivening thickets. Many of the trees are of a majestic size. The trunk of one *bogaha* (tree of Buddha, or religious fig) growing on the road side, probably not one of the largest, required the full stretch of the arms of four men to encompass it, so that the circumference must have exceeded twenty feet. This elegant tree is held in high veneration by the Cingalese, and their history says, that Buddha delighted to recline under the shade of its spreading branches. Near to it stands a small *choultry* formed of square wooden pillars, and a thatched roof, behind which rises a noble pyramid of rock, from which the place derives the name of Goagalla. A company of poor travellers

were resting, stretched at full length amidst these friendly shades, displaying happy and contented countenances. Herds of cattle, both common oxen and buffaloes, were grazing uncontrouled in the adjacent valley. In favourable seasons two crops of rice are raised here every year: but, if the rains fail, every species of grain is destroyed by excessive heat, no artificial method of watering the fields being, at present, practised in this part of Ceylon. The soil, however, is so productive of all the tropical fruits that famine is a calamity unknown.

The stupendous mountain of stone, called by the Dutch Adam's Brecht or Berg, by the Cingalese Mulgeerelenna, *alias* Mulgeeregalla, is one entire rock of a smooth surface, rising in the form of a cube, on two sides completely perpendicular. From a measurement lately made it was found to be only three hundred feet high: it strikes the beholder, however, as being much more; and the Cingalese, the only inhabitants of this part of the country, say, that by dropping a rope from the top to the bottom of the rock, they ascertained the height to be three hundred and forty cubits. We ascended its highest summit, on the side where the rising is most gently, by a winding flight of stairs, formed of five hundred and forty-five deep steps of hewn stones. These stairs must have been a work of prodigious labour, and are said to have been constructed fifteen hundred years ago, at a period long before European conquerors made their ap-

pearance in the island. At one place it is necessary to ascend a part of the rock which is nearly perpendicular. There twenty hollow steps are hewn out of the stone on a smooth surface, by the side of which is hung an iron chain to assist the traveller in climbing. To render the ascent less dangerous, it is prudent to put off one's shoes; but coming down is attended with more difficulty, and requires still greater caution. A journey up such a flight of steps affords a powerful exercise to the lungs; and, under the full blaze of the meridian sun, the excessive heat cannot be described. On the summit, which is circular and level, stands a bell-shaped tomb of Buddha, similar to that which accompanies every temple dedicated to the Cingalese divinity. From this eminence we are gratified with a sight of one of the most extensive and romantic prospects which nature can display. The eye looks down upon a wide country, in appearance the richest and most luxuriant which imagination can conceive. The nearest mountains look like hillocks: mighty ranges of hills rise one behind another, the most distant appearing the most majestic: green valleys wind among them like rivers; and the fields are enclosed with borders of trees and flowering shrubs planted without the aid of art. In cutting down the *jungle* and clearing the soil for the purpose of agriculture, belts of wood have been allowed to stand dividing and protecting the cultivated grounds, and presenting a highly

ornamental as well as useful inclosure. A level country appears running behind many of the mountains, the picturesque appearance of which is heightened by multitudes of massy rocks and aged trees. On one side the view is terminated by the sea, at the distance of eight miles, making a large sweep along the coast, on which we discover the situations of Tengallee, Matura, and Belligam. In another direction the prospect is bounded by fine mountains within the British territories: in a third we look into the wild dominions of the king of Candy. The broadest valleys resemble the most beautiful parts of Yorkshire in England, but are still more highly adorned. The whole scenery combined exhibits an appearance of the most perfect culture disseminated through an extensive province, the hedges of which have been nourished with care, and the woods and lawns laid out by a person of the finest taste.

On the second flat from the top is the entrance into a remarkable cave. By some violent convulsion, the solid mass seems to have been split asunder; the perforation at first descending perpendicularly, then slanting, and issuing out, about the middle of the rock, in a round orifice, through which we see the light, and part of the country below. People have gone down into the cave, and when at the end of it could discover no means of descending to the ground. On the same flat stands an elegant *bogaha*, or hallowed fig-

tree, having a circular wall, three feet high, built, at some distance, round it, the intermediate space filled with earth, and a small temple erected under the shade of its spreading boughs.

About half way up the stair-case are two gloomy temples of Buddha contiguous to one another; they are both caverns excavated out of the solid rock. Front walls and tiled roofs are united to a projecting cliff, which is formed within into arched domes. In each of these temples is an image of Buddha, in a reclining posture, forty-five feet in length, and of a proportionable breadth, formed of stone and plaster. There are likewise a great many statues, of the common size, standing in ranks, all in the dress of Buddha, and called his disciples. The inner walls are covered with hieroglyphic paintings, not meanly executed. One of these sanctuaries is at present undergoing repair: the roof is heightened by a strong fire kindled within the cave, occasioning large splinters to fall from the hollow cliff, and supplying materials for building the walls. Before the portal of this temple stands a square reservoir of good water, enclosed with walls of hewn stone. About fifty steps from the bottom of the rock are other two temples, executed and furnished in the same manner.

At the foot of this rock are situate the houses of the priests, built of stone and lime, with tiled roofs, and stored with every comfort necessary to their happiness. Ten of

the sacerdotal order reside here, some of them old men, others only boys, all having their heads shaved bare, and wearing the same yellow mantle, which is the dress of Buddha, and very graceful. Those who have been once dedicated to the priesthood never engage in any secular employment besides decorating the temples, and designing historical paintings on the walls. In the province of Matura there are said to be two thousand individuals of that description, a great many temples of Buddha, and a considerable number of inhabitants. It is the most beautiful and best cultivated tract in the southern corner of the island, and yields a considerable revenue to government. It abounds in oranges, pomegranates, pine-apples, and other fruits, all of the most delicious quality. But notwithstanding the advantages which this part of the country enjoys, it is unhealthy; and the inhabitants are frequently attacked with fevers, attributed to the quantity of putrid vegetable matter, obstructed circulation, and sudden transitions from sultry heat to chilly cold. We descended, however, from the mountains without feeling any unpleasant consequences, and not a little captivated with the striking aspect of the province which we visited. There is something so extravagantly romantic in those sequestred spots, that they inspire the mind with unusual pleasure. A traveller, who delights to contemplate the face of sportive nature, may there behold her unblemished features and undisguised charms; and a

person who is fond of meditation, and recollection of past events, may here enjoy all the luxury of solitude. Every discordant passion is lulled to rest: the most complacent benevolence warms the soul; and the mind triumphs in unbounded freedom amidst peaceful tranquillity. The wildness and luxuriance, the sublimity and beauty, of the scenes probably equal any combination which rural grandeur can display. Whilst employed in contemplating them, the power of utterance is lost in silent admiration, and the eye wanders with astonishment and rapture from the rocky brow of the lofty mountain to the rich pastures of the fertile valley.

The inhabitants at Kahawatta erected, in one day, a spacious *bungaloe*, for holding a visitation of the school, which answered all the purposes of the most finished building. In general the children assemble in the *rest-house;* as their parish school, like many others in Ceylon, has fallen a sacrifice to the ravages of time, and the neglect of seasonable repair. Some of the boys here are of a light brown colour, and all of them have good countenances, smooth black hair, and no other dress but a few yards of muslin girded about the loins. In school they are implicitly obedient to their masters; and, when at play, discover all that sprightliness and joy which is peculiar to their years. The schoolmasters wear shirts, vests, and coats of English broad cloth with silver buttons, after the same fashion as the mo-

delears. The catechists dress in black, either cloth, satin, silk, or velvet; and generally walk in leather slippers, or wooden sandals.

On the afternoon of the 7th of August we came down to Dickwell; and on the 8th returned to Matura. A few comfortable farms, and labourers at various occupations in the field, were the only new objects which attracted attention on the way. The art of husbandry begins to revive in these territories. During a long course of years it was the object of a confined policy to trammel the cultivation of Ceylon with every possible discouragement, in order that the abundant crops of Batavian rice might find an advantageous market. But no such obstacles any longer exist, and under the hand of a wise and liberal government, the island is calculated to become one of the most productive within the tropics.

On the 10th of August the writer accompanied his excellency and suite to Badool, nine miles up the *Neel ganga*, or Matura river. The boat in which we were accommodated was the property of a gentleman of the place, and very neatly constructed, being a stage placed upon two large canoes, with fixed seats in an oblong form, a canvas roof, and drawing curtains hung round to keep off the sun. Four rowers sat, one at each end of the canoes which projected beyond the covered stage, and there was no room for more hands to be employed. The stream was perfectly smooth,

gliding gently, and winding through a cultivated valley enclosed by little hills adorned with trees, elegantly varied both in outline and colouring. Rich borders of shrubs skirt the banks of the river, in many places neatly fenced against the encroachment of the water; and the light green of the corn fields forms a pleasing contrast with the dark shades of the forests. Overhanging the river is, likewise, great abundance of trees, hung with a beautiful fruit resembling the mangoe, but of a poisonous quality. In the same situation are a great many birds' nests of a curious construction. Each is suspended from a branch of small twigs; the entrance into the nest being from beneath, after which it falls down like a bag, in which the bird deposits its eggs. It is completely covered at the top, so that it forms a safe and commodious retreat. The texture of it is perfect, the eggs small, of a beautiful white. Companies of black monkeys appeared sporting among the tops of the groves, and jumping from one tree to another with great agility. This river is frequented by alligators, but none presented themselves during our excursion. The inhabitants have fenced in parts of the water with stakes, for the convenience of bathing, so that they enjoy that luxury in safety. On approaching near to Badool a party of natives came out to meet us, and fixing a long rope to the barge, drew it along much faster than it moved by rowing, some of them wading in the water, and others walking on the banks. A boat of state was here prepared

to receive the governor, into which it was necessary for him to enter out of complaisance to the people. It was a stage placed on three canoes, covered and hung round with gaudy curtains, in a less finished style than the other barge. The pillars, which supported the canopy, were decorated with young cocoa-nut leaves in the usual manner. A concourse of inhabitants assembled on each side of the river, and *tom-toms* were beaten with great violence. A set of young men, in the dress of dancing girls, exhibited all the wild steps and gestures peculiar to the country, and on the approach of the governor bowed to the ground. When he landed, white garments were spread, for several hundred yards, on the ground under his feet, and burning incense was carried before him, in silver vessels, up a flight of fifty steps, leading to a house belonging to government, beautifully situate on an eminence, commanding an extensive prospect of the river, winding through flowery meadows, and terminated by a variety of luxuriant hills and azure mountains.

About six miles from Matura we stopped at a wooden bridge, which crosses a branch of the river, and walked a quarter of a mile into the country to see the remains of a diamond mine, which was, at one time, productive, but has either been exhausted, or found, at last, insufficient to defray the expence of working it.

On the 11th of August, the writer visited the Cingalese temple of Heetateeah in the neighbourhood of Matura.

This is a new building very gaudily ornamented. The historic pictures are bright and distinct, and considering the state of civilization in Ceylon, wonderfully well executed. All the images are concealed by curtains of coloured muslin, which the servants of the temple draw aside without awe or ceremony when a stranger requests to see them. A variety of strong smelling flowers were strewed on a table before the large image of Buddha. It was here that the sketch was made represented in plate VIII. While employed in drawing it the writer was gratified with the company of a venerable priest, about eighty years of age, who seemed to consider the performance as an honour done to the temple, and requested that his name might be written on the same piece of paper with the drawing. The demand was obeyed, but neither of us had then any idea that it should be thus presented to the eye of the united kingdom: " *Velliveriey Sangarakeeta Teron Wahansey.*" On taking leave he prayed that every blessing of the Almighty might attend me: and I departed, only disappointed that my little acquaintance with his language did not enable me to enjoy a more interesting conversation.

The old temple of Hetateeah is still standing entire, at a small distance from the new one; but the decorations are tarnished, and many of the paintings considerably effaced. Upstairs in it, at the side posts of one of the doors, are two tusks of an elephant, each nine feet in length, protected with

a covering of cloth, and fixed in pedestals on the floor. Within the room is a small portable house made of copper, enclosing an image of Buddha of the same metal, in height eleven inches. This curiosity, as well as the elephant's tusks, were presented to the temple by one of the Dutch governors of Ceylon, who received them for that purpose from the king of Candy.

On the 14th of August, Thomas Christie, esq. surgeon of his majesty's 80th regiment, superintendent of hospitals in Ceylon, joined our party, with an intention of accompanying us to Trincomallee.

On the 20th of August, at day-break, we set out from Matura, breakfasted and spent the forenoon at Dickwell; and at four o'clock P. M. reached Tengalle, twenty-four English miles distant from Matura. The road was ornamented with cocoa-nut leaves, the school bungaloes decked in their richest dresses, the rest-house at Dickwell nicely fitted up, and accommodations prepared around it for all the party. We saw a great deal of cultivated ground, some fields covered with ripe *paddee*, some overflowed with water, others affording pasture for cattle. The way was finely varied, sometimes rugged and hilly, sometimes along the sand of the sea shore, sometimes cut through impervious thickets, everywhere adorned with flowering shrubs, but only seldom with groves of cocoas. Two miles and a half from Dickwell, another inlet of the sea stretches into the

country, resembling the windings of a gentle river. Near to it stands a rocky head-land overgrown with trees. After this appears an open bay, formed by two low points of land running out into the sea. Wherever there were inhabitants they left their huts and approached the road to view our procession, a rare sight in so wild a country.

Tengalle is pleasantly situate on the sea coast, having a small bay and good anchoring ground, forming of itself a fine picture, surrounded by romantic scenery, extensive woods, and ranges of lofty mountains. A fortress of two bastions, containing the ruins of three large houses, is erected on the summit of a hill. Close to it stands an ancient ornamental tomb of Buddha, overgrown with shrubs, adding greatly to the picturesque appearance of the place.

The view of Tengalle from the north-east is elegant and striking; but it is not well seen from the south-west, on account of the quantity of large trees and thick underwood by which it is in a great measure concealed. Besides the houses within the fortress, there are likewise here the remains of a large building, situate on the sand beach, which appears to have been the mansion occupied by the Dutch resident. A range of temporary buildings was raised here on the sea shore, for the accommodation of the governor and his retinue. The *bungaloe* appropriated to his excellency's use was richly decorated, in the Ceylonese style, with various coloured muslin hangings, gold and silver tinsel, gum

flowers, and other gaudy ornaments. Amongst a set of printed cloths, displayed on the walls, was one containing a representation of a flying eagle with the head of an elephant carrying an elephant in each claw, a symbolical device probably intended to exhibit the genius of man triumphing over the strength and sagacity of these formidable animals.

CHAPTER VII.

DESCRIPTION OF AN ELEPHANT HUNT—PLAN OF INSNARING, AND MANNER OF SECURING THE WILD ELEPHANTS.

ON the 21st of August we made an excursion to the elephant snare at Kotawy, nine miles north of Tengalle. The first half mile led through a deep sand along the sea shore: after which we crossed a small river in single canoes. A wooden bridge is thrown over it, sixty feet long, and twelve feet high above water, but only affording the breadth of one plank to walk upon. The natives, however, pass on it with ease, even when loaded with heavy burdens. The remainder of the road lay entirely inland, the path being smooth and firm, sometimes covered with short grass, leading through cultivated grounds, fields of *paddee*, and meadows replenished with herds of buffaloes, and common black and red cattle. Many fine mountains appeared, some rocky and steep, and all richly adorned with wood. About half way to the snare, at the distance of one mile on the left hand, a white temple and tomb of Buddha rise from the bosom

of a dark green forest. The labourers' cottages are every where thatched with straw, a circumstance denoting a considerable cultivation of rice, but not common on the coasts of this island, the leaves of the cocoa-nut tree being the usual materials in the construction of roofs.

In the district of Matura are three enclosures for insnaring elephants, only one of which is used in one year. That which has been occupied this season cannot be employed the next, as the thickets are so much broken down and devoured that they could not afford the necessary pasture. But, after two or three years, the foliage is completely renewed, and the same enclosure may be chosen again with every advantage.

All the forests of Ceylon abound with elephants, which are gregarious, usually traversing the country in large troops together. As they often descend from the mountains of Candy to the lower territories, and obliterate the traces of cultivation, by merely walking through the grounds, it is thought that the snare was first invented for the purpose of diminishing their number, without any view of benefiting by them in their tamed condition. Be this as it may, it is absolutely necessary for the comfort of the inhabitants and the prosperity of agriculture that the extirpation of these animals should be continued. They not only destroy, unintentionally, the husbandman's fields of corn; but are also fond of the produce of his garden, particularly of cocoa-nut leaves and

plantain trees, which they devour with eagerness. The elephants of Ceylon, besides, are highly prized, on the peninsula of India, on account of their extreme gentleness and docility: and, being too useful to mankind to be permitted to roam unemployed in an island, they are transported to the continent, to increase the pomp of princes, and to add to the energy of war.

When government has determined that a hunt shall take place, natives are sent out into the woods and mountains to discover the retreats of the wild elephants, and to mark in what direction they range in greatest numbers. As soon as the situation of two or three herds has been ascertained, an order is issued to all the inhabitants of the district to surround the forest, in which they feed, with a chain of fires, that must be kept constantly burning while the hunt continues. On the last occasion this chain, like a net drawing the animals, commenced its operations thirty miles from the snare at Kotawy; and an advancing line of three thousand men was employed in supporting it for the space of two months.

The fires are raised four feet from the ground on moveable stands, formed of four perpendicular sticks, and twigs wattled across them, on which earth is laid to receive the fuel, and covered with a sloping roof of cocoa-nut leaves to ward off rain. These stands are placed, at first, about one hundred paces from each other, and are gradually brought

nearer in proportion to the compression of the enclosure, until at last the distance between them does not exceed ten paces.

The chain of fires approaches daily, at the rate of from one furlong to a mile, towards the snare. This movement is not made by a regular advance, but by cutting off corners of the ground, out of which it is known that the elephants have departed. The people enter, at opposite sides, into a foot-path in the woods, with stands and hurdles of fire; and, when a communication is opened between the parties, the enclosure is, in a certain degree, diminished. The vigilance of the men must increase as the circle lessens, for the efforts of the elephants to escape are proportioned to the smallness of the space in which they are confined. But shouts and flames strike them with so much terror, that they are, at all times, easily repulsed wherever they attempt to charge. Were it not for this timidity, no barrier of the stoutest timber could withstand the shock of those enormous animals, rushing on impetuously in a compact and impenetrable phalanx. At the end of two months they are enclosed in a circle, of which the wide entrance of the snare forms a part; and are, at last, brought so near to it, that by the exertions of the surrounding multitude, they can be made close prisoners in a few hours. The grand business of the campaign is then considered as brought to a termination: the incessant vigilance and energy of the pursuers have proved successful:

and the wild unthinking herd are placed entirely in the power of their discerning captors. At this period of the chase, all persons desirous of witnessing the sight resort to the scene of action. The moment is critical; for accustomed as the elephants have been to the fires and noise of the people, it is to be apprehended that, being less terrified by these than by their captivity, they may attempt to break out of the narrow compass into which they have been pressed. To guard against this, and to push them still farther forward, a new mode of frightening them is adopted. A small party of natives armed with muskets, and a greater number with squibs and rockets, are prepared to act in concert with the men stationed on the line of fires, now forming a sweep of three quarters of a mile, united at both ends with the strong works of the snare.

An idea of the enclosure may be formed by drawing, on a piece of paper, the outline of a wide funnel. A little way within the wide end a palisade runs across, in breadth six hundred feet, containing four open gates, at which the elephants enter. A view of two of these is commanded from a *bungaloe*, erected for spectators on pillars thirty feet from the ground. The enclosure is formed of the strongest trees on the island, from eight to ten inches in diameter, bending inwards, sunk four feet into the ground, and from sixteen to twenty feet high above it. They are placed at the distance of sixteen inches from each other, and crossed

by four rows of powerful beams, bound fast to them with pliant canes. To this palisade are added supporters more inclined, several feet asunder, augmenting the strength of the fence. The part of it in which the elephants are first enclosed is eighteen hundred feet in circumference; but it communicates with a smaller fold, one hundred feet in length, and forty broad, through which a rivulet passes five feet in depth, and nearly fills the enclosure. The elephants enter this place of confinement at only one gate; and beyond the water the fence gradually contracts, terminating in a strong passage, five feet broad, and one hundred feet long.

All things being ready for driving the elephants into the snare, the governor and his party repaired to the ground about seven o'clock in the evening, ascended the elevated bungaloe by a long ladder, and waited several dark and tedious hours, but the termination of the chase amply repaid their patience. It was necessary that silence, as well as darkness, should reign amongst us; and, in a situation where our eyes and ears were otherwise so attentively engaged, conversation would have been particularly irksome. The shouting of the hunters was incessant, muskets and rockets joined in the chorus, and the wild roaring of the elephants was heard at intervals, more distinctly warning us of their approach. At length the forest crashed, and the enormous herd pushed forward with fury, levelling instanta-

neously every tree which opposed their passage. The following up of the people with the lights and fire-works was truly grand. Every man waved in his hand a blazing torch, formed of a bundle of reeds, the feeble but effectual means of defence against a tremendous foe. The trees were nobly illuminated, and, towering aloft amidst the surrounding darkness, spread their glittering foliage in the air.

The greater part of the herd having entered the gates of the enclosure before the arrival of the lights, they were only faintly observed. But two huge elephants, cut off from their troop, approached within a few yards of the bungaloe where we were seated, galloping before the flames, trampling the brushwood, and shattering the trees. The column of men following hemmed them into a corner near where we were stationed; and the people, advancing at the same time from the opposite side, shut them out of the last gate, thinking that all had entered. Through this mistake the two elephants were terrified by a blaze of fires both before and behind, and closely pressed by the more formidable glare, they turned with trepidation and made their escape. The four gates of the replenished fold were then closed, and secured with great expedition. Large stakes were driven into the ground previously made ready for their reception, connected together with transverse beams, and strengthened by powerful supporters. Fresh boughs were likewise strewed over these as well as other parts of the palisade, so that the

elephants, not perceiving the structure of the fence, were less incited to attempt breaking it down. Immediately after the fastening of the gates, a chain of fires and torches was formed within the enclosure, for the purpose of driving the elephants into the smaller fold, full of water, at the narrow end of the snare. The people employed pass easily in and out through the interstices of the pales, which are left open in the lower parts for that purpose, affording the means of advancing when opportunity offers, and the benefit of retreat when rendered necessary. The gate of the water fold is formed of horizontal round sticks, fastened together with ropes and pliant twigs, and rolled up like a curtain. Several men sit upon the cross beam which supports it, provided with axes, ready to cut the suspending cords, when a signal is given. The pliable nature of this door adds greatly to its strength, and, together with the vigilant activity of spearmen, never fails to resist successfully the repeated attempts of the distracted elephants to burst it open. The line of flame once more began its terrifying movement. The people resumed their tumultuous noise, mingled with the din of trumpets, drums, and arms. The affrighted herd, again annoyed with impending horrors, renewed their tremendous flight; and rushing like an agitated torrent, into the water-snare, experienced still greater sorrows. As soon as seventy elephants had forced their way into this place, it being sufficiently crammed, the cords were cut, and the barricading

gate dropped down. The greater part of those which had entered were so closely wedged together, that many of them were motionless; and even the foremost, which were less confined, saw only a fallacious opening to lead them from this doleful labyrinth. Upwards of one hundred of the captured herd, cut off from their companions, were left for a time to range at greater liberty in the larger prison.

The huntsmen toiled all night. Their shouting and hallooing became more incessant. Now and then the hollow thunder of the elephants was heard. Sometimes a dead silence ensued, indicating that the business of the hunt was going on well, and that the persons employed were removing the elephants from the enclosure without loss of time.

In a valley at the distance of a quarter of a mile from the snare, an elegant set of bungaloes was erected for the accommodation of the governor and his suit. There we rested during the night, occasionally serenaded by the romantic music of the hunt. At sun-rise, on the 22d, we returned to the active scene, and became spectators of a most extraordinary sight. So great a number of enormous animals crowded into so small a compass is a spectacle rarely to be seen. Pressing heavily upon one another, incapable of almost any movement but convulsions of distress, their paroxysms of anguish could not be contemplated without emotion. No person could find language to express his

feelings. All were struck dumb with a species of astonishment hitherto unexperienced.

To produce the strong effect of this unusual sight, the most appropriated words and the boldest touches of the pencil are equally inadequate. At this place, likewise, stands an elevated bungaloe, erected for the gratification of spectators, commanding a complete view of the water-prison, and the narrow passage through which the captive elephants are taken out. Here we are surrounded by a magnificent landscape of majestic trees, to the picturesque beauty of which are added the terminating barriers of the snare, the crowd of elephants, the concourse of idle people, and the animating exertions of the active and vigorous.

From the water toil to the discharging passage the ground considerably rises, and the elephants ascend part of it on steps formed in the bank. The gallery is so narrow as only to admit in its breadth one elephant. Sometimes they are chased, and sometimes they advance into it of their own accord. The first elephant that entered imagined that he had discovered an opening by which he could escape, and ran with great eagerness to the end of the passage. On perceiving his mistake, there being no room to wheel round, he attempted to return by moving backwards, but bars shoved in behind him secured him in immoveable confinement.

When the elephants do not proceed into the passage

spontaneously, the people drive them by howling, shouting, and pricking them with spears, from the tops of the fence, where stages are erected for that purpose. Sometimes it is necessary to make use of burning torches, rockets, and muskets, before they can be forced out of the water. This part of the business becomes gradually more and more difficult, until at last, when but a few remain, every possible exertion is tried, even showers of musket balls are fired upon them without obliging one to stir. The hearing of the distressed moanings of their friends after they have been removed, and the never seeing any of them return, are, no doubt, the circumstances which fill them with terror, and make them dread even worse treatment than close confinement in a stream of water. They pressed so much upon one another, that many of the young were drowned, and several of the full grown crushed to death. Many exertions were made by them to regain their liberty, but their powers were greatly lessened by the pressure of the surrounding water, and the incumbrance of their unwieldy bodies crowding in all directions upon one another: besides, every attempt was checked by the resistance of the active multitude which constantly watched their motions.

As soon as an elephant arrives at the end of the long passage, cross bars are shoved in behind him, through the interstices of the stakes, and lashed down with ropes to the

transverse beams, so that he can neither move forwards, nor backwards, nor sideways. His confinement is thus limited in order to contract the powers of his prodigious strength, and to allow the men to approach near enough to bind his legs, without being exposed to danger. The elephants which follow are separated from one another in the passage, and made close prisoners in the same manner. The passage is likewise covered with transverse beams to prevent the elephants from rearing on their hind legs, and to enable the people to pass the necessary cordage round their necks. Here their efforts to regain their freedom are accompanied with extraordinary violence; often raising their fore legs, they crash the beams laid across their backs, and make the whole fabric shake from its foundation. The people on the top oppose them with sharp-pointed spears, and additional bars are shoved in above them, and fastened down with ropes. Great ropes, formed with nooses, are laid down to catch his hind legs, and drawn tight about them: five or six turns of smaller cordage are passed round his neck. While these operations are going on, a man stands before the gate of the passage, tickling his trunk, and diverting his attention with a pike, or a bunch of cocoa-nut leaves, so that the cords are made fast without difficulty or opposition. Sometimes he attempts to break the bars of the gate, which he perceives to be the termination of his confinement; but

they are immensely strong, being five in number, fastened down with ropes, and connected together by a perpendicular pole running across their centres.

When the wild elephant is completely harnessed, two tame elephants, trained to the business, are brought to the gate, and placed one on each side of it. These immediately survey the prisoner whom they have to conduct, feel his mouth to know whether or not he has tusks, and lay hold of his proboscis to ascertain what degree of resistance he is likely to make. Ropes are passed through the collar of the wild elephant, and made fast to similar collars on each of the tame ones. The bars of the gate are then unloosed, and drawn out; and the wild captive darts forward directly between the two tame elephants: he can, however, only advance a little way, as the ropes securing his hind legs still continue fastened to the strong stakes of the toil. In this situation he remains, until the riders mounted on the tame elephants have drawn tight the cords which bind him to the necks of his half reasoning conductors. During this operation he endeavours to undo with his trunk some of the knots which have been made, and often attempts to give a destructive blow to the diminutive creatures so actively engaged in confirming his captivity. But the two tame animals, who are vigilantly observant of all his motions, never fail to prevent him from doing any mischief by gently lowering his proboscis with their own: if he continue long refractory,

they batter him with their heads, and at last produce the most obsequious submission. The nooses of the ropes are then opened, leaving his hind legs at freedom, and himself entirely disengaged from the snare. The two tame elephants press close on each side of him, and proceed, in pompous procession, to the garden of stalls, where they deliver up their charge, to experience another species of hardships. The marching off of this venerable trio is a sight truly magnificent, and exhibits a noble specimen of the skill of man united with the sagacity of the elephant.

At the commencement of the march, the keepers strike up a rustic song, something like whistling to oxen in the plough, which adds considerable effect to the striking scene. They are seated on the necks of the tame elephants, holding short inverted spear-hooks struck perpendicularly into their collars. When they wish to turn them they catch one of their ears with this instrument, and by pressing it into their skin make them move in any direction that is required.

It is, likewise, highly gratifying to accompany them to the grove, and to observe with what expertness and ease they are securely bound, in the most superb of all stables. Making him fast there is an operation as tedious as putting on his harness before he quits the toil. While that is doing the tame elephants continue close on each side of him, and act their part with so much judgment, that their savage brother exhibits all the gentleness of a lamb.

When an elephant is not very formidable nor unruly it is sufficient to place him, lengthways, betwixt two large trees, about forty feet distant from each other; there to bind his hind legs in contact together, and fasten them close to one of the trees with five or six turns of thick rope, likewise to bind one fore leg, to which greater liberty is given by the length and slackness of the cordage. The pair of tame elephants are then disengaged from the wild one, and conducted back to the toil to take charge of another captive. This is a most trying moment to the wild elephant. While guided by the tuition and soothed by the society of his subjugated brethren, he stood tranquil and quiet, appearing to forget his sorrows, and to gather fortitude under his sufferings. But the instant that his companions march away, finding himself closely bound, a solitary and helpless prisoner, he is agitated with all the horrors of despair, breaks out into a roaring which makes the forest tremble, and, in the fury of his extravagant grief, often falls a sacrifice to the exertions which he makes to regain his liberty. At this period cocoanut leaves and plantain trees are brought to him for food. In the agony of distress he tosses them contemptuously away, or tramples them with indignation under his feet. The craving of hunger, however, at length, induces him to eat, which he does, at first, with evident reluctance, but becomes gradually more resigned, and feeds plentifully at the end of a few hours.

When an elephant is of a large size, and apparently fierce or stubborn, he is led to a stall previously erected for the purpose. Four strong stakes are driven into the ground in a front line with two large trees, which help to support them; and three horizontal bars are made fast across them, uniting the upright posts together. These are likewise strengthened by a second line of stakes joined in the same manner: and all are secured by ropes, like the masts or yards of a ship. The head of the wild elephant enters in between the two middle stakes, and is enclosed above and below by two of the cross bars. A tame elephant stands on each side of him between the stakes and trees. On their backs, five or six men are actively employed making fast his neck to the stakes, and as many hands are busy tying his legs, and binding the ropes to the large trees. Both fore and hind legs are bound fast together. Five ropes are carried from the hind legs, one to each of the four corners of the stall, and one suspended from the cross beam behind. The fore legs are secured to the two stakes, betwixt which they stand, and two ropes, besides, extend from them to the larger trees in the same line. Sometimes this rack is formed merely of hewn timber, but the assistance of living trees is always taken where it can be got, and contributes greatly to the strength of the imprisonment. In that style it is doubtless a secure and close confinement; yet many huge elephants shake the whole fabric from the foundation, mak-

ing the towering trees tremble from their summits to their roots, and unite such tremendous bellowing with their exertions, that spectators unaccustomed to the scene are apt to feel apprehension and terror. No species of palm is of sufficient strength to be of any service for the purposes either of insnaring or securing the elephants. But the *cocos* is extremely useful in furnishing them with leaves to eat, a provender of which they are extremely fond.

When a wild elephant is very young, he is fastened to only a single tame one, who leads him out of the toil, and keeps him in the most perfect order.

On this occasion several elephants, after having been fastened to the trees, strangled themselves by their exertions to break loose, and probably by the ropes being too tight about their necks. Others fell down between the tame elephants, and shared the same fate, notwithstanding every attempt to save them. These sagacious animals, aware of the hazardous situation of their captive brother, the moment they perceive him fall, kneel to the ground, to prevent his suffering, and use every means in their power to induce and enable him to rise.

The first day of removing them, one elephant fell down in the narrow passage, and could not be raised for a long time, notwithstanding every exertion which ingenuity could suggest. Even a strong fire was kindled around his body

without producing any sensible effect. At last, however, he was prevailed on to move; and when he had proceeded but a few paces beyond the toil, he fell down, and died. Had he not been gotten out in this manner, the business of the hunt would have been retarded by his choking up the passage; for it is a matter of no little difficulty to extricate a dead elephant from so confined a situation.

One elephant was of so enormous a size that it required the exertion of all his vigour to push through the passage; and when disengaged from it, he rose considerably above the tame elephants on each side of him.

Of the seventy elephants, at first confined in the water prison, only four had long tusks.

One very young elephant, in the tumult of scrambling, forced his way through an interstice of the stakes into the open stream: but immediately made most eager efforts to rejoin his friends, and shewed no desire to escape, until closely pursued and harassed by spearmen, and hunters. At one time a noose was thrown from the top of the palisade very dexterously round his neck, while he continued wading in the water: but by moving backwards he disengaged himself from it, then ran upon the bank defying a body of a thousand armed men, who kept him, for a little while, at bay by their pointed spears: but, at last, he broke through the line, and galloped away to his parent mountains, where he no

doubt related the strange situation in which he left his family and friends, and the inexplicable treatment under which he saw them labouring.

At one time three prodigious elephants ran up to the end of the narrow passage, pressing one after another, crashing the intervening bars, and shaking the whole structure from the foundation. But the activity of the hunters in separating them by new rollers lashed together with ropes, and the dexterity of the spearmen in mounting the toil, and penetrating their foreheads, prevented the terrible effects which, otherwise, might have followed the strength and fury of those enraged animals.

Notwithstanding all the care that is taken, accidents sometimes happen. One man had the misfortune to tumble down into the passage, and was instantly trampled to death under the feet of the elephant, in restraining whose anger he had been so actively engaged.

When the elephants find themselves so closely immured, they roar tremendously, and exert all the strength which they have room to use to regain their freedom; and were it not for the pressure of their imprisonment, they have power sufficient to shatter any fence that could be formed.

Their plaintive cries have all the expressions of sorrow, rage, resentment, and despair. Often, after they are bound to the trees and stakes, in the forest set apart for their reception, finding every effort ineffectual even to disengage a

single limb, their hollow eyes fill with tears, and their countenance wears an aspect of the deepest melancholy. The females, from natural causes, feel the oppression of the yoke with keener sensibility, and more frequently fall a sacrifice in the struggle.

At present three hundred men are employed in guarding the snare, and removing and securing the captured elephants: and, although the Cingalese are very expert in these operations, from sun-rise to sun-set the first day, they carried away only twenty. The business, however, might be accelerated by adding another discharging passage, a greater number of hands, and more tame elephants.

The grandeur of the sight here displayed seems principally to proceed from the crowd of elephants assembled in so confined a compass, the enormous size of those noble quadrupeds, the danger of subduing them, and the striking specimen which it affords of the wonders that can be accomplished by human genius. No description, no engraving, can produce the singular impressions which proceed from the original spectacle. Even a just conception of so magnificent a sight cannot be conveyed by representing the whole process in one view. But a ground plan of it may be laid down on a regular scale, illustrated by a set of beautiful drawings exhibiting the various scenes as they successively occur. The part of the snare where the elephants are taken out, and the garden where they are tied up, form,

Drawn by J. Cordiner

Engraved by T. Medland

Elephant Snare at Kotauy

each, subjects for many paintings. Some of these have been ably executed by the pencil of Joseph Jonville, esq. late surveyor general and naturalist in Ceylon.

The plate which accompanies this chapter probably contains as much as could easily be comprised within such confined dimensions. It may assist in affording a slight idea of the method of ensnaring elephants, to strangers who have never witnessed the scene; but will prove more effectual in calling the particulars to the recollection of those persons who have been spectators of the curious sight.

An elephant is often tamed in eight days, but if he be obstinate, the business cannot be accomplished in less than two months. By seeing men regularly supply him with grateful nourishment, his first abhorrence of the human species gradually diminishes: he soon gains a thorough knowledge of his keeper, and at last follows his commands with the most implicit obedience. At the commencement of their captivity water is carried to them in large vessels, but, after a few days, they are regularly loosed from their confinement, and with the assistance of their tame brethren conducted to a fountain.

After they are sufficiently docile, they are marched round to Jaffnapatam, a distance of upwards of three hundred miles, and nearly half the circumference of the island, where they are sold by public auction, and thence exported to the

opposite peninsula, in open boats of a construction adapted to that purpose.

The elephants of Ceylon are from ten to eleven feet in height, and are divided into three classes. The first of these is distinguished by long tusks turning upwards, and, besides being the most elegant in appearance, is likewise remarkable for a superior degree of intelligence. The second is provided with shorter tusks descending perpendicularly: and the third, the most numerous, is entirely destitute of those appendages.

Although the elephants are gregarious, it is said they are regularly classed into pairs of male and female, and when one dies, or is lost from the society, the unfortunate survivor is expelled the flock. In this situation he is obliged to wander in solitude until he finds another helpmate. The state of exile often produces phrensy; and though the united herd never attack a man without provocation, it is extremely dangerous for a traveller to meet a single wild elephant.

The proboscis measures seven feet in length, and from three to four inches in diameter. This curious organ, which is added to the elephant on account of his immense size, to enable him the more easily to procure his food, appears the more wonderful the more attentively it is surveyed. It affords him all the advantages which hands administer to the human species: with it he breaks down the branches of trees, divides them into pieces of a convenient size, and puts them,

with most complete dexterity, into his mouth. It likewise supplies him with water, in a more plentiful and agreeable manner than man can drink without the aid of an artificial vessel. In tearing branches, and tossing them about to clear them of dust, he uses a round turn of the elastic trunk; it is likewise provided with a moveable orifice at the extremity, which acts like a finger and thumb. With it he picks out of the sand a piece of silver coin not larger than a pea, and puts it with perfect elegance into the hand of his keeper, whether sitting on his neck, or standing near him on the ground. When oppressed with heat, during the sultry hours of the day, he gathers quantities of earth with a fold of the trunk, and throws it repeatedly over his back, to refresh his sun-burnt body.

The eyes of the elephant are uncommonly small in proportion to the size of the animal. It has no fore-teeth on either jaw. The proboscis, which is the nostrils extended, projects from the upper jaw, and the lower jaw terminates in a point. The skin looks bare, the rough hairs upon it being scattered at a great distance from one another. It is marked all over with wrinkles, and the colour is ugly, somewhat resembling an iron grey. The legs measure about six feet in circumference, and are of equal thickness from the thigh to the toes, or nails, the only marks which distinguish the feet. The female is said to go eighteen months with young; the animal produced takes many years to attain its full

growth, and extends its life beyond the period assigned to the lords of the creation.

The udder of the female is placed between the fore-legs, and consists of two dugs, one on each side of the breast, hanging down in the form of inverted cones. They propagate their species in the same manner as other quadrupeds, but do not breed in their tamed state. Elephants, however, have been seen to couple in the enclosure after they were caught. The large flaps of their ears appear generally gashed, being torn by the cumbersome thickets through which they are accustomed to pass.

Near to the spot where the governor's head quarters were established at Kotawy, there are fine fields of *paddee*, and pleasant meadow ground, where herds of oxen and buffaloes were grazing during the noise of the hunt, apparently unconcerned and undisturbed. Elephant's milk has the flavour of a filbert, or the almond of Ceylon when newly pulled, but is not so rich or luscious as one might be apt to imagine. Some parts of the flesh of the elephant are very palatable. A foot of one roasted appeared on his excellency's table, having been cut from a noble animal that fell unavoidably in the tumult of the hunt. When salted and kept in vinegar for a month it becomes tender, scarcely distinguishable from hung beef: in that state I have tasted and often seen it eaten at Columbo. Mr. North sent a cask of it to England, but, not having been

properly cured, it arrived in bad condition. Several young peafowls were shot by the sporting gentlemen of the party, and proved a luxury more generally relished.

On the 23d of August we left the busy scene, and returned to Tengalle. On the way we met five tame elephants, coming from that place, loaded with ropes for the purposes of the hunt; likewise a company of pioneers going to assist in constructing another discharging passage from the toil, the first having been considerably damaged, and the ground leading to it so much broken, that the elephants could scarcely raise themselves out of the water.

On the 29th of August, after breakfast, the governor, attended by his aide de camp, paid a second visit to the scene of elephant hunting at Kotawy, and returned to Tengalle at night. The sights which they witnessed proved highly gratifying, surpassing any which they had formerly seen. The garden of stalls appeared magnificent, displaying forty-two noble animals elegantly arranged, some of them already become tame, and all promising to do well. On this occasion a few elephants were driven into a newly constructed toil, where there was no water, and were managed fully as easily as those in the water-snare. The water-snare was cleared of the dead bodies, repaired where it had been shattered, and replenished with a small detachment from the captured herd. By limiting the number of close prisoners in those toils, it is naturally expected that there will be a

greater chance of preserving them all alive. The effluvia of the dead carcases, having tainted the surrounding air, attracted an extraordinary concourse of alligators, jackals, and curious birds, which devoured the putrid flesh with eagerness, and enjoyed an abundant banquet.

While the subject of ensnaring elephants is before us a second hunt may be mentioned, at which the writer was present on the 26th of February, 1801, in the woods of Topoe, six miles from Negumbo. The elephants were driven into the toils with day-light; and we enjoyed at one time a complete view of the whole troop, and all the compartments of the snare, of which there was one more than at the former hunt. On our taking our seats in a lofty *bungaloe*, they appeared standing quietly in a peaceful group in the centre of the first enclosure. But when driven into the second, and perceiving the narrowness of their confinement, they were inspired with uncommon fury, attacked the stockade in one united body on every side; and had they summoned courage to push undauntedly forward, the strength of the barrier, powerful as it was, must instantly have given way to their irresistible impulse. The crowd that opposed them found their safety only in the mistaken fears of their enraged enemy. Wherever they directed their assault, preparation was made to receive them. Lines of pikes and spears, aided by flaming torches, stared them in the face, and, supported by the increasing uproar and tumultuous shouts of the people,

terrified them so effectually, that they always stopped suddenly a few paces before the fence. Forty of them ran up with great speed into the third compartment as far as the narrow passage, on perceiving which they wheeled instantaneously round, effected their retreat before the gate could be lowered down, and afterwards shewed great unwillingness to re-enter. The inner enclosures were crowded with young plantain trees, cultivated there as an attraction to the elephants, and likewise contained many tall and majestic trees growing in a state of nature. All these the wild herd, with surprising quickness, levelled with the ground. The lofty trees tumbling down so suddenly, leaving a waste above, and falling along the backs of the troop, produced a singular and magical effect. The devastation and waste which instantaneously followed their impetuous course is scarcely conceivable by a person who has not been an eye-witness of the scene. Although the ground was literally as luxuriant as the garden of Eden before them, they left behind them a desolated wilderness.

At six o'clock P. M. thirty elephants were confined in the first enclosure, twenty in the second, and ten in the third. Before dinner, by torch-light, one was taken out of the toil, led away, and secured in the usual manner. The forest in which he was tied up is one complete and extensive shade, formed by lofty spreading trees, so closely interwoven over head, that a single ray of sunshine cannot pene-

trate. The snare is constructed on the same general plan as that at Kotawy, but contains a greater number of divisions, and no water in any part of it. That necessary article is brought to the snare in small canoes, and placed, in all directions, through the interstices of the stakes, to refresh the thirsty captives. The works of the toil become gradually less powerful the farther they are removed from the place of confinement, all parts of the palisade beyond it being no longer of any use after the elephants are driven into the snare. On this occasion the elephants partook of all the nourishment which was offered to them in their state of imprisonment; and eat cocoa-nut leaves, and plantain trees while the men were employed in making them fast to the stalls. The following day we received great entertainment from witnessing the wonderful docility of a tame elephant. No animal was ever more perfectly obedient. He went through a variety of manœuvres, bent down, making his body a stair for his keeper to ascend; lifted him with his trunk, placing him on his neck, and lowering him to the ground, walked forward on his knees, moved backward, and performed many other operations equally curious. During the hunt at Topoe governor North kept an open table, to which all the ladies and gentlemen of Columbo received an invitation: and upwards of eighty persons enjoyed, for several days, the exhilarating pleasures of his liberal hospitality. His excellency's private apartments, and the banqueting-

hall, were situate close to the mouth of the elephant enclosure. A camp for the visitors was pitched in an open field, one quarter of a mile distant, connected with the place of entertainment by a nobly shaded avenue. The surrounding country is covered with majestic trees and thick impervious brushwood, by which the prospects are much confined. Were two thirds of the trees and shrubs cut down, the beauty of the scenery would exceed the powers of description, labour and cultivation being the only things requisite to render this part of the island one of the richest and most delicious provinces within the tropics.

The manner of catching elephants in the Candian territories is more enterprising, and more properly deserves the name of hunting. Two methods are practised: one by laying nooses for their feet, with the ropes fastened to trees, and afterwards securing them with the assistance of tame elephants: the other by men riding boldly out on these docile animals, selecting the choicest elephant of the wild herd, throwing ropes about his neck or legs, and beating him into subjection by bodily force.

The king of Candy permits his tame elephants to wander at liberty in the woods around his capital, and when he wishes to be entertained with a sight of them, they are collected to one spot by the sounding of a trumpet, and conducted before the palace. The male leaders of opposite troops are brought together by the assistance of females,

guided by their riders, and accustomed, at their meeting, to fight in a most furious manner. These champions commence the battle by striking with their trunks, and twisting them around each other: when warmed by the heat of contest they batter one another with their ponderous heads, often producing terrible contusions: but, at a signal given by a drum, they instantly cease, march back to their respective flocks, and retire into the woods. These facts are attested by respectable gentlemen, who visited Candy in times of peace: some of whom were eye-witnesses of the last-mentioned scene, and after what has been experienced of the docility of those noble quadrupeds, nothing here advanced savours of improbability.

Tame elephants are employed in Ceylon for transporting salt, in seasons of scarcity, from Mahagam to Columbo. They are likewise very useful, in times of war, for carrying large quantities of rice and heavy tents. One elephant is said to bear a load equal to what can be conveyed by sixteen bullocks; but the bullocks of Ceylon are of a small size.

Elephants are likewise sometimes employed in felling trees, in places intended either to be thinned or cleared of wood. I was witness to a scene of this nature on the 26th of December, 1803, in the cocoa-nut garden of Anthony Bertalocci, esq. on Slave-island at Columbo. The animal is conducted by his rider to the tree which he is desired to bring down. His trunk is the instrument most frequently

used for that purpose: raising it perpendicularly along one side of the tree, he shakes it, as a man can move a slender willow with his hand. This motion is often sufficient to break the stem, but if it should not give way, he applies the whole force of his body, to which it invariably yields. The cocoa-nut trees felled, at this time, measured from seventy five to eighty feet in length, and from eight to ten inches in diameter. Several elephants happened to be then idle at Columbo, and were lent by government to the proprietor of the garden, who rewarded them for their successful labours, during the period of a week, by allowing them to browse on the leaves of the trees which they felled. The timber, being of a porous nature, was considered of such a trifling value, that scarcely any person could be found who would accept of it as a present, and carry it off the ground.

Lord viscount Valentia being at this time in Columbo, paid a visit to the cocoa-nut grove, one of the days, whilst the noble quadrupeds were busied in levelling the trees. That intelligent nobleman was much pleased with the journey which he performed in Ceylon, and particularly delighted with the rich botanical field which the luxuriance of vegetation there affords. His lordship's remarks on the island will doubtless form a valuable part of the history of his travels.

What Knox says concerning the elephant may not be unacceptable in this place. "This beast, tho' he be so

big and wise, yet is easily catched. When the king commands to catch elephants, after they have found them they like, that is such as have teeth *(tusks)*; for tho' there be many in the woods, yet but few have tusks, and they males only: unto these they drive some she-elephants, which they bring with them for the purpose; which when once the males have got a sight of, they will never leave, but follow them wheresoever they go; and the females are so used to it, that they do whatsoever their keepers bid them either by a word or a beck; and so they delude them along through towns and countries, thro' the streets of the city, even to the very gates of the king's palace; where sometimes they seize upon them by snares, and sometimes by driving them into a kind of pond, they catch them. After they have brought the elephant which is not yet caught together with the *she*, into the king's presence, if it likes him not, he commands to let him go; if it does, he appoints him some certain place near unto the city, where they are to drive him with the females; for without them it is not possible to make him stay; and to keep him in that place until the king's further order and pleasure is to catch him, which perhaps may not be in two or three or four years. All which time great men with soldiers are appointed to watch over him; and if he should chance to stray a little out of his bounds set by the king, immediately they bring him back, fearing the king's displeasure, which is no less than death itself. Here these

elephants do, and may do, great dammage to the country, by eating up the corn, and trampling it with their broad feet, and throwing down the cocoa-nut trees, and oftentimes the houses too, and the inhabitants dare not resist them. They are not caught for any use, but merely for the king's recreation and pastime.

"As the elephant is the greatest in body, so he is in understanding also. For he does any thing that his keeper bids him, which it is possible for a beast not having hands to do. And as the *Chingulayes* report, they bear the greatest love to their young of all irrational creatures; for the shees are alike tender of any one's young ones as of their own: where there are many she-elephants together, the young ones go and suck of any as well as of their mothers; and if a young one be in distress and should cry out, they all in general run to the help and aid thereof; and if they be going over a river, as here be some somewhat broad, and the streams run very swift, they all with their trunks assist and help to convey the young ones over. They take great delight in lying and tumbling in the water, and swim excellently well. Their teeth they never shed. Neither will they ever breed tame ones with tame ones; but the people, to ease themselves of the trouble of bringing them meat, tie their two forefeet together, and put them into the woods, where meeting with the wild ones, they conceive and go one year with young.

" It is their constant practice to shove down with their heads great trees, which they love to eat, when they are too high, and they cannot otherwise reach the boughs. Wild ones run much faster than a man, but tame ones not. The people stand in fear of them, and oftentimes are killed by them. They do them also great damage in their grounds, coming by night into their fields, eating up their corn, and likewise their cocoa-nut trees, &c. So that in towns near unto the woods, where is plenty of them, the people are forced to watch their corn all night, and also their outyards and plantations; into which being once entered with eating and trampling they do much harm before they can get them out. When by lighting of torches and hollowing they will not go out, they take their bows and shoot them, but not without some hazard, for sometimes the elephant runs upon them and kills them. For fear of which they will not adventure unless there be trees, about which they may dodge to defend themselves."

" The king makes use of elephants for executioners; they run their tusks thro' the body, then tear it in pieces, and throw it limb from limb. Sharp iron with a socket and three edges is put on their tusks at such times; for the elephants that are kept have all the ends of their tusks cut to make them grow the better, and they do grow out again.

" At some uncertain seasons an infirmity comes on the males, which go stark mad, so that none can rule them.

Many times they run raging with their keepers on their backs, until they throw them down and kill them; but commonly there is notice of it before, by an oil that runs out of their cheeks, which when it appears, they immediately chain them fast by the legs to great trees. For this infirmity they use no medicine; neither is the animal sick; but the females are never subject to it.

"The keepers of the king's elephants sometimes make sport with them after this manner. They command an elephant to take up water, which he does, and stands with it in his trunk, till they command him to squirt it out at some body, which he immediately does, it may be a whole pale-ful together, and with such a force, that a man can hardly stand against it."

CHAPTER VIII.

VOYAGE FROM TENGALLE TO BATTICALOE—DESCRIPTION OF THAT SETTLEMENT—SMALL POX—COW POX—TALIPOT TREE —CEREMONY OF A BRAHMIN'S OATH—VOYAGE FROM BATTICALOE TO TRINCOMALLE.

THE Mahagampattoe, the wildest and most uncultivated district of Ceylon, being now before us, it was represented to the governor that serious difficulties might occur in travelling through that extensive desert, attended by his present numerous retinue. In many parts of it water is hardly to be procured, and a sufficient quantity of rice could no where be purchased. His excellency, therefore, gave up the idea of traversing that waste and desolate province on this occasion; and reserving the examination of it to a future opportunity, determined now to proceed to Batticaloe by sea. Accordingly, at midnight, on the 30th of August, 1800, aided by the light of the moon, and accompanied by a party of eight gentlemen, he embarked on board the government brig Tartar, in the bay of Tengalle. At four

o'clock next morning the vessel got under weigh, the south-west monsoon then blowing gently in her favour. Besides the general periodical winds which alternately succeed each other every six months, the coast of Ceylon, as has already been mentioned, is greatly influenced by land and sea breezes, each of which regularly prevails, for a certain period, once every twenty-four hours. The time of sailing, therefore, is determined by the prevalence of the wind best adapted to answer the purposes of the mariner. Smaller vessels, of real Indian construction, were provided for transporting part of the servants and baggage; but as a sufficient number of these could not be procured, a considerable body of bearers, carrying empty palanquins, were obliged to proceed by land. Mr. William Orr, and Mr. Jonville, two gentlemen in the civil service, who had some time before joined our party, likewise prosecuted their journey, by different routes, through the province of Mahagam, for the purpose of making observations on the decayed tanks, natural salt pans, and general state of the country.

During the 31st day of August the Tartar advanced so rapidly along the coast, that her commander fearing lest, by continuing his course, he should pass Batticaloe in the night, stood off and on shore until next morning. This caution, however, appeared on the first of September to have been unnecessary, for currents on the east coast of Ceylon frequently deceive navigators: and at sun-set, about six

o'clock P. M., we saw no prospect of making the destined harbour before the return of another day. None of the crew had ever sailed to that port, and all being unacquainted with the distinguishing land marks, they were puzzled in endeavouring to find it. We looked long at the false and at the true Friar's-hood, the most remarkable mountains on this part of the coast; and various opinions prevailing concerning them, every man was rendered doubtful of his own judgement. The risk of sailing beyond the port being now greater than the preceding night, at nine o'clock P. M. the anchor was dropped. Next morning at day-break the vessel got under weigh; and at noon the flag staff on the fort of Batticaloe was clearly discerned. We passed to the northward of it, this being necessary to open the channel of the harbour, and at one o'clock P. M. anchored at the distance of one mile from an inlet of the sea, which exhibits the appearance and receives the appellation of a river. The agent of revenue, captain Thomas Young, came immediately out in a large boat to conduct the governor on shore. The wind blew strong off the land, so that it occasioned a hard pull with the oars to reach the beach. On entering the creek, where the water is smooth and tranquil, we moved into simply constructed barges, provided with canopies of white calico, and proceeded in them one mile and a half up the channel to the little island on which the fort is situate. The governor was received at the wharf by the British commandant,

and three Dutch gentlemen, inhabitants of the place. His landing was announced by a salute of nineteen guns from the batteries, and he walked through a lane of sepoys to the government-house, where he was welcomed with the same unaffected hospitality which he would have experienced in the house of a highland chieftain in Scotland. In the evening the united parties dined in a pavilion about half a mile from the fort, the residence of the revenue agent. On retiring to rest, they were all comfortably accommodated at the quarters of lieutenant Macdonnel, the commanding officer of the garrison.

The island of Batticaloe is three miles and five furlongs in circumference, and there is a pleasant walk on the sand beach round it. The fort is of a square construction, having four bastions nearly uniform, on which twenty-four guns are mounted. The internal dimensions are small, containing only a low barrack, a granary, a magazine, and the spacious mansion of the commandant. A little village stands a few hundred yards from the walls of the fort, and several huts are scattered over the island. At the farther end of it, two Portuguese chapels are reared within a stone cast of each other. One is entirely appropriated for the accommodation of fishermen and their families; the other is open to the inhabitants of every denomination. The buildings are neat, built of stone and mortar, and roofed with curved tiles. They are not meanly decorated, and contain a great many

images. These, in general, appear rather smaller than life, but are wonderfully well executed. There is likewise another chapel of a similar description on the opposite shore.

The great body of the inhabitants, however, is composed of Hindoos, and Mahometans, who have here no conspicuous place of worship, but perform the rites of their religion in obscure cottages. All descriptions of the people speak the Malabar language. They wear turbans tied loosely round the head, of a more open and lighter form than those used on the coast of Coromandel, and have their ears loaded with gold rings, often four inches in diameter. Their ears are pierced at an early age, and the orifice is gradually enlarged by a round piece of wood, or rolled up palmyra leaf, pressed into it, until at last the flap of the ear hangs down several inches in an open ring, so wide that a man's hand can pass through it. Even the richest inhabitants wear no other dress, except the usual piece of muslin girded about the loins, and hanging down low enough to conceal one knee. The common people, who live chiefly by fishing, cover their nakedness as sparingly as possible.

The number of protestant Christians in this province is extremely small. The governor, however, lately settled here a Malabar preacher of the gospel of excellent character, who has revived several parish schools, which had been long neglected, and now meets with considerable success.

The inlet of the sea, which surrounds the little island of Batticaloe, extends thirty miles into the country, and contains several other islands of similar dimensions, named Buffaloe Island, Deer Island, and such like, from the nature of their productions, and the description of animals by which they are inhabited. The adjacent grounds are flat, covered with corn and cattle to a considerable distance, after which they gradually rise and terminate in chains of noble mountains, among which are Friar's-hood, Funnel-hill, and a rocky eminence of a cubical form, with a flat horizontal summit, on which is erected a palace of the king of Candy.

The frith, in many places, is one mile broad, and affords excellent navigation for boats. Unfortunately a sand bar stretches across the entrance, on which is no more than six feet depth of water, so that only small vessels can come in to it: but when once entered they ride in complete security. While we remained at Batticaloe, the brig Tartar, a vessel of seventy tons burden, sailed over the bar without any obstruction. The master, however, would not have attempted it, had he not been alarmed by the appearance of his Majesty's ship Trident, which he mistook for an enemy.

Batticaloe is garrisoned by sixty sepoys, and fifteen gun lascars.

On the 4th of September, I accompanied the superintendant of hospitals in a boat ten miles up the arm of the sea, which beautifies this part of the country. His object was

to inspect the villages of Vandermal and Eraoor, which had been lately deserted by the inhabitants, owing to the breaking out of the small pox. On such occasions the husband forsakes his wife, the mother her children, and the son his father, often leaving them in their miserable huts to the ravages of famine, and the wild beasts of the forest. Sometimes, however, they contrive to furnish them with subsistence without entering their dwellings: but, in those sequestered hamlets, medical aid was only now beginning to be known. For many years great desolation was committed annually by that exterminating malady the natural small-pox. The Dutch inhabitants, being themselves enemies to the practice of inoculation, never encouraged it among the native Ceylonese.

After the inhabitants had left their villages, they became the prey of wild elephants, hogs, and chetas. The elephants broke down the feeble fences, took possession of the gardens, tore up the plantain trees by the roots, levelled those of the cocoa-nut, and browsed upon their leaves. The ravaged orchards exhibited scenes of terrible devastation; the mangled trees were strewed on the ground, the straw stripped from the roofs of the cottages, the surface of the earth broken up, and filled with hollows, the fences shattered; earthen pots, the simple utensils for culinary purposes; wheels, reels, looms, and all the apparatus of the weaver lying useless and forsaken. A family of three infected persons, who had been left in one of the gardens of Eraoor, were

supposed to have been devoured by the chetas, or wild bears, as a vestige of them could not be seen. Of the diseased in Vandermal forty people died, and ten recovered. The malady having then subsided, the villagers were beginning to return, and setting about repairing their demolished hamlets.

Soon after Mr. North's assumption of the government of Ceylon, establishments were formed, which tended greatly to mitigate the distress produced by the small-pox. At the four principal stations in the island spacious hospitals were erected, both for the purposes of inoculation, and for the reception of persons labouring under the natural disease. In each of the twelve smaller districts a medical overseer was appointed to attend the sick in their own houses, to repair to any village where infection prevailed, and to reside there while it continued. After the commencement of those establishments many thousands of patients were inoculated, and the proportion of deaths to that of cures was not greater than what was at the same time common in Europe. The system proved extremely beneficial, and in its several branches became the means of preserving many useful lives. But now Providence has conferred on the inhabitants of Ceylon a milder and more sure relief, by the introduction of the Jennerian improvement. Vaccine inoculation commenced at Trincomallee in August, 1802, with matter sent from Bombay. It was thence circulated round the island,

conveyed to Madras, communicated to his Majesty's fleet, and spread with rapid success over all the British empire in the east.

At Vandermal we saw bales of coarse cotton, which had been brought thither from the Candian territories, machines for pressing and cleaning it, little spinning wheels, and humble looms, with weavers busy at work sitting on the ground. All the operations seem conducted on the same principles as in England; but the machinery is more simple, formed on a smaller scale, and less calculated to promote dexterity and expedition.

The cloth manufactured at this place, although not fine, is neatly ornamented, calculated to last long, and well suited to the use of the inhabitants.

On the banks of the frith, or river, near to this place, a young man, of the Portuguese cast, was employed in salting wild hog for the market at Trincomallee, where it sells for one fanam, or two-pence farthing per pound. Some steaks of the fresh meat were dressed for us, and tasted as delicious as the richest mutton, being exceedingly fat and well flavoured. The young man exhibited to us a specimen of the manner of following and shooting the wild hogs, which is accomplished with the assistance of a tame buffaloe trained to the business. He holds its head by a halter, and keeps always under cover on one side of it, bending his body so that the pursued animals cannot see him. In this position he turns

and manœuvres the buffaloe, with ease and rapidity, in all directions, continuing concealed from the game, which would fly if it perceived a man, but is not alarmed at the approach of a buffaloe, being accustomed to view those animals without any apprehension of danger. The sportsman deliberately takes his aim over its back, and approaches within so small a distance that he never fails of success. A Parriar dog happening to pass by, afforded a subject on which he illustrated the whole process, following it round the sides of a field for some minutes, concealed by the buffaloe, while the devoted animal tried to elude his pursuit with evident symptoms of terror, yet apparently chained to its doom by irresistible fatality; and when the shot was fired, the dog instantly fell, and expired without a struggle.

On the 7th of September Mr. Jonville arrived at Batticaloe, having travelled by land from Tengalle, which place he left on the 27th of the preceding month. A detachment of bearers and palanquins followed in his train, for the conveyance of which boats could not be procured. He found the road better, and met with fewer difficulties than were expected. No cocoa-nut trees appeared after leaving Tengalle until within three days journey of this place. Many single elephants and a great number of alligators were seen on the journey. In a small Hindoo pagoda, an opportunity was taken of delineating some curious sculptures, representing those lewd and indecent scenes which characterize the

swamy coaches in all parts of India where the worship of Brahma prevails.

On the 8th of September the writer visited the Christian school of Periyatorra on the main of Ceylon, about two English miles from the island of Batticaloe. The appearance of the children was extremely gratifying, and the deportment of a teacher only fifteen years of age particularly interesting. His complexion was fair, and his manners denoted mild and amiable dispositions. The scholars are smart and tractable, displaying sweet serenity in their countenances. Their hair is nicely combed, plaited, and fixed in a knot, resembling a cockade, with a silver pin in it, sometimes on the right and sometimes on the left side of the head. A little thin hair is combed down upon the face, and at the back of the neck the hair is cropped quite close. The costume is handsome and becoming; but when the youth arrives at the age of puberty, the knot is tied behind, and all its elegance disappears. The children of the first class of inhabitants wear gold rings about their necks, legs, and arms, but no other articles of dress excepting a piece of printed muslin about the waist. They sit upon the ground on mats, with their legs under them, seemingly very attentive to their tasks, which they read and repeat with as much vociferation as possible. The music of their voices resembles in some degree the quick notes of a harpsichord. They learn the letters in the same

manner as the Cingalese, and all the other nations of India, by writing them in sand spread upon the floor, or a stone bench, at the same time singing their names, and the characteristics of their formation: as if in writing the letter *A* they were to say *A* is one line up, another down, and one across. Boys of five years of age write after this method with great facility and neatness. Those more advanced write, or engrave, with a stylus, or piece of pointed steel fixed in a brass handle, on slips of talipot or palmyra leaves, which are thicker than parchment, and of a nature no less durable. When the writing is finished, they sometimes rub over the leaf with a black juice, which fills up the characters, making them look bright and beautiful.

Near to Periyatorra stands a small imperfect Hindoo temple, completely empty, apparently neglected, and little frequented, displaying no ornaments but a few wretched daubings on the walls representing human figures, elephants, and tigers. The soil here is sandy, but a great deal of it is cultivated, and clumps of flourishing cocoa-nut trees grow about the farm houses. The forests produce large trees fit for shipbuilding, and many kinds of the most valuable timber, such as satin wood, calaminder, and various species of ebony, well adapted for cabinet purposes. The surrounding country is one of the cheapest and most plentiful provinces in Ceylon. Rice is sold at one fanam and a quarter per measure; and farther inland, the same quantity, which

amounts to nearly two English pints, may be purchased for one half of a fanam, or a fraction more than one penny sterling. A great quantity of that grain is exported from the province of Batticaloe to other parts of the island. At this place fish is extremely cheap: for one halfpenny a quantity may be bought sufficient to dine two hard-working men. Oysters and prawns are found in great plenty, of the first quality. Game of all kinds abounds. Areca-nuts, betel leaves, tobacco, and curry stuffs, are scarce and dear, because none of those articles are raised in the province. The cheapness of other provisions may be ascribed to the small number of Europeans who reside in the district. Were they to multiply, every necessary of life would soon reach the standard which prevails at the other stations. The productions of the English market are, however, more difficult to be procured here than at almost any other military post on the coast of Ceylon.

The native inhabitants of this place are uncommonly obliging, and are always ready to accompany a stranger, and afford him information, when he expresses a wish to see any curiosity which the little isle produces. They fish to so much advantage in the smooth frith, that they never think of venturing out into the open sea. Tranquillity, plenty, and contentment, reign among them; and they feel no desire to leave the spot where they were born. It produces every thing which is necessary to their comfort; and all the ground

is the property of private individuals, excepting the fort, the esplanade, and a garden occupied by the agent of revenue, which belong to the British government.

Several specimens of the talipot tree are flourishing here, from one of which was taken the drawing represented in the annexed plate. It is the largest species of the palm. Its leaf exhibits the form of a fan, and resembles that of the palmyra *(Borassus flabelliformis)*, although the dimensions of it are much larger. The stem likewise is thicker, and taller, growing perfectly perpendicular, firm in its position as the mainmast of a man of war, and unmoved amidst the most pitiless tempests. The trunk of the talipot tree, from which the sketch was taken, measured six feet and a half in circumference, and was, at least, one hundred feet high. The leaves furnish the natives with materials for making umbrellas and tents, which are extremely light, packed into a small compass, and easily carried. One great advantage which they possess over canvass is, that no water ever soaks into them, and from that circumstance rain has no effect in adding to their weight. The talipot leaves are the most valued materials for the formation of true Indian books, being the smoothest, strongest, and best adapted for receiving the puncture of the stylus. The fruit is about twice the size of a cocoa-nut, of a black colour and pulpous consistence, containing seeds or nuts like those of the palmyra.

Plantains grow here in great abundance. The houses,

gardens, and little farms are prettily enclosed, and divided from one another by wicker fences, intermixed with creeping and flowering shrubs. Between these inclosures are many nice and elegant walks, which often lead into delightful groves of palmyra, jack, cocoa-nut, and other trees and plants less useful, but not less ornamental, in the midst of which the rare and lofty talipot rears its stately head.

Those majestic arbours afford to a philosophic mind most enchanting solitary retreats, where, removed at a distance from all intrusion, it glows with admiration of the wonderful works of God, tastes the real pleasures of Paradise, and feels those heavenly sensations which captivate the soul and meliorate the heart. In such a situation, in the cool and silent hour of the evening, when every sense is gratified, and a pleasing serenity soothes the mind, the ravished contemplator regards the scene which surrounds him as the most transporting which nature can display. The soul expands with rapture, and indulges in copious draughts of the most delicious pleasure. A man then becomes sensible of his rank in the creation, and returning into the world, carries with him a new incentive to the practice of goodness.

One day while the supreme court of judicature was sitting at Batticaloe, I had an opportunity of seeing the ceremony of administering an oath to a Ceylonese Brahmin. The sacred book, written on palm leaves, lies upon a small oblong table, carefully wrapped up, bound round with a long cord,

J. Cordiner del.

Etch'd by P. W. Tomkins

Manner of carrying the sacred Book, preparatory to the administration of an oath to a Brahmin.

Published Aug. 10th 1807, by Longman Hurst, Rees & Orme, Paternoster Row

and covered over with several folds of coloured muslin. The table has six turned legs, and is placed upon the head of a young boy, behind whom an older Brahmin stands holding the two legs of the table which are nearest to him, one in each hand. Afterwards it is laid upon the floor, the covers taken off, and the volume displayed. The officiating Brahmin repeats the nature of the obligation, and pours a little water into the hand of the person who swears, which he shakes and sprinkles on his head: then bowing down, he touches the book with his hands, repeating the prescribed words, and rising up, the ceremony is finished. The appearance of the pair of Hindoos in the attitude of elevating the sacred volume was so striking, that Mr. North considered it as a subject fit for delineation; and as a better artist was not then at hand, I was requested to attempt a sketch of it, which is here submitted to the eye of the public.

The 17th of September being the day appointed for our leaving Batticaloe, after a farewell *tiffen*, or early dinner, given by captain Young, the governor walked down to the beach, through a lane of sepoys, under a salute from the walls of the fort, embarked at the quay on board the long boat of his Majesty's ship Trident, about four o'clock P. M., and reached the ship about five, when he was received with all the honours due to his rank. One half of the party accompanied his excellency, and the other half, to which I be-

longed, went on board the Tartar. The Trident got immediately under weigh, bound for Trincomallee; and a few minutes after the brig followed. The wind was favourable; but, as it blew fresh, and increased towards night, we stood out to sea. In the morning of the 18th the Trident appeared a considerable way ahead, and we perceived the lad at a great distance from us; which circumstance being unpleasant to our commander, he bore directly down upon it. This however proved unfortunate, as it carried us from the tract of a fine breeze into the midst of a dead calm. At three o'clock P. M. we discovered Foul Point, and the situation of Trincomallee: and soon after heard two salutes announcing the arrival of the governor, and saw columns of smoke rising from the batteries both of Ostenburg and Trincomallee. The brig lay at anchor all night off Foul Point, as there was no wind, and the current ran against her. Had it been otherwise, captain Stephany would not have attempted to enter Back Bay in the dark, as he never had been there, and had no pilot on board to whose experience he could trust. The access, however, is easy, and in steering for Flag Staff Point there is no danger, as a vessel may run close to the rock, and be perfectly safe in deep water. On the 19th at day-break we got under weigh with a fine breeze, and were directly off the flag staff of Trincomallee at eleven o'clock A. M., one league and a half from the shore. For

a little while we were becalmed, but a light sea breeze sprang up and carried us into the bay. Captain Turner of the Trident was so kind as to send us one of his boats, in which we landed at two o'clock, when we found the governor, the commandant, colonel Champagné, and all the garrison in their usual health, and were received by them with the most gratifying hospitality and most affectionate kindness.

CHAPTER IX.

DESCRIPTION OF TRINCOMALLEE—HOT WELLS OF CANNIA—JOURNEY FROM TRINCOMALLEE TO ARIPO, MANAAR, AND JAFFNAPATAM.

WE are now arrived at the most important station on the coast of Ceylon, possessing that noble and commanding harbour, which alone renders the island so valuable as a protection to our Indian commerce, and a security to the British empire in the east. Trincomallee is situate in 8° 28'. north latitude, and 81° 28'. east longitude. From its centrical position, and the easy ingress and egress which it affords at all seasons, it is better adapted for being made a marine depot, and a rendezvous for his Majesty's squadrons, than any other station in India. At Bombay the navy are removed entirely out of the way of affording any protection to trade, and for six months in the year a great lapse of time is required before they can come round to the opposite coast of the peninsula: at Calcutta, or in the river Hoogly, they are placed exactly under

similar circumstances. The total want of shelter on the coasts of Coromandel and Malabar renders a free access to the port of Trincomallee a most momentous object. At seasons when ships cannot look into the road of Madras, nor shew a sail off the mouths of the Ganges, they are here presented with a sure refuge. The naval power that commands this harbour may keep all Asia in awe, and easily intercept the trade of other nations to and from every corner of Hindoostan.

But notwithstanding the advantages attached to its local situation, Trincomallee has been treated with more marked neglect than any other of the Dutch settlements in Ceylon. The soil is naturally arid, the air sometimes noxious, and the colonists from Holland neither studied to increase the fertility of the one nor the salubrity of the other. The jealous policy of their government declined the visits of strangers, and kept the country in its original barrenness, that the convenience of the harbour, obscured by the appearance of an ungrateful climate, might be less apt to attract the attention of a rival power. Yet the district, although uncultivated, does not possess a soil unfavourable to vegetation, if any judgment can be formed from the luxuriance of the shrubs, which spring every where spontaneously. Two species of palms, the *cocos* and *borassus*, flourish in full vigour. And several British officers have raised excellent vegetables in their gardens, without any extraordinary ex-

ertion. These are proofs that the soil and climate are not the sole causes of the existing sterility; and there can be no doubt, that under wise and liberal management the adjacent plains might be rendered rich, fertile, and salubrious. From the convenient port, and the easy intercourse between it and the neighbouring peninsula, thoughts have been entertained of rendering Trincomallee the seat of government in preference to the fruitful district of Columbo. The stream of wealth, then flowing around it, would soon convert the parched desert into flourishing hamlets and fertile plantations.

A person coming from Madras by sea, and landing at Trincomallee, is forcibly struck with the aspect of the rocks, woods, and mountains, and the fresh and lively green which everywhere meets the eye, and forms a striking contrast with the dusky and shriveled groves on Choultry Plain. So little is heard of this island on the coast of Coromandel, that a visitor is taken by surprise, and a scenery surpassing expectation astonishes no less than it delights.

In variety of romantic prospects, Trincomallee far excels any other of the British settlements in Ceylon. The view from Back Bay is striking, beautiful, and sublime. On one hand stands an immense projecting cliff, within a ship's length of which men of war ride securely at anchor. In many places it rises perpendicularly from the sea upwards of one hundred feet; and the broken hill above it is elevated

two hundred feet more. The flag staff is placed near to the outermost point of the rock; and along the summit and declivities of the higher ground are situated the bungaloes of the officers, and barracks of the private soldiers, intermingled with trees and shrubs of the liveliest verdure and most elegant appearance. On the other hand an extensive line of native villages is shaded amidst groves of cocoa-nut trees, behind which rises a chain of hills richly clothed with wood, and overtopped by azure mountains. The great body of the fort and town of Trincomallee is situate at the bottom of the rock, and joined to a narrow neck of land running parallel to the sea, and separating the harbour from two adjacent bays, one of which lies on each side of the three-cornered promontory. Fort Ostenburg, guarding the entrance into the harbour, is seen in the back ground at the distance of three miles.

As the houses within the walls of Trincomallee are excessively hot, from their low and confined situation, temporary accommodations have been built on the higher grounds, where the air is always cooler and more healthful. The governor's bungaloe stands on a mount near to Chapel point on the side of Dutch bay opposite to the fort, completely surrounded with magnificent landscapes, affording noble subjects for a panorama, which, if ably executed, would excel any scenery which has been exhibited to the public in that form.

The harbour, the safest and most spacious on the confines of the eastern ocean, whilst it proves to be an acquisition of intrinsic value, presents at the same time the richest prospects. The communication with the sea being, in almost every direction, entirely concealed, it resembles a beautiful and extensive lake. Hills diversified by a variety of forms, and covered with luxuriant verdure, rise steep all round, completely enclosing the capacious basin. Many winding creeks, in which the water becomes tranquil, afford pleasing pictures; and a few ornamental islands, dispersed through the wide expanse, add to the picturesque appearance of the scene. The water is as clear as crystal, and being so well sheltered, is rarely troubled with violent or dangerous agitations. Five hundred ships of the line may enter it with ease, and ride at anchor without the smallest inconvenience. The harbour is accessible at all seasons, but for one half of the year mariners give the preference to Back bay, it being then sufficiently safe, and affording a more easy ingress. Forty sail of men of war may find there excellent anchorage: and a much greater number of small craft can lie in security close to the sand beach. Dutch bay is never entered by large ships, as it is choked up with sunk rocks, but it is navigated by boats and Indian vessels of little burden. Although live stock and vegetables do not abound at this place, yet his Majesty's ships always procure there some desirable refreshments, and receive the best supplies of wood and water

that are to be found in India. The greatest harmony subsists between the naval and military officers, and the comforts of both are increased by a mutual exchange of good offices. The constant intercourse with Madrass through the fleet, affords the garrison of Trincomallee an opportunity of being well supplied with every article of European produce. Many species of beautiful and uncommon shells are thrown upon the shores here by the violence of the north-east monsoon, a valuable collection of which may be made at a small expence.

The guns of Trincomallee command both Dutch and Back bay, the former on the south, the latter on the north side of the fortified rock. Ostenburg protects the mouth of the harbour. That fortress stands upon a mount, three miles west of Trincomallee: it was built by the Portuguese out of the ruins of a celebrated Hindoo pagoda, which occupied the same ground, and which they considered it meritorious to destroy. One chain of the batteries surrounds the base, and another the summit, of the circular hill. The intermediate space is embellished with a variety of beautiful trees, all ever-green, and resembling in appearance the most elegant foliage in England. There is not, however, amongst them any species which bears the least similitude to a fir or pine. On the ramparts are noticed some pieces of ordnance mounted upon depressing, and others on traversing, carriages. The surrounding hills and islands are completely covered

with large shrubs, the appearance of which is beautiful, and the verdure perpetual. The landscape seen from the upper walls of Osternburg, looking towards Trincomallee, embracing the harbour and the sea beyond both bays, is accounted one of the most picturesque which this station affords.

The greater part of the works of both these forts was built by the government of Portugal: some additions were made by the French during the short time they had possession of this place: but little or nothing was done by the cautious administration of the United Provinces. Seventy-two pieces of cannon are mounted on the ramparts of Trincomallee, and fifty on those of Ostenburg. Both places were at this time garrisoned by his Majesty's 80th regiment of foot, one company of Madras artillery, two hundred and sixty gun lascars, and one battalion of sepoys.

The fortifications of Trincomallee form a sweep, upwards of one mile in length, encompassing the bottom of the rocky hill, on the sides connected with the adjoining land; that part of it which projects farthest into the sea is sufficiently protected by the steepness of the cliffs, and the depth of the surrounding ocean. A small redoubt is situate on the declivity of the hill overhanging the town; and several pieces of cannon are planted on its different summits. No communication can be carried on with this promontory but through the gates of the fort; and were all the works raised a little higher on the hill, the citadel would be impregnable.

Trincomallee is not only the place of greatest value, and the first where an attack may be expected, but is also capable of being made a place of greater strength than any other military post in Ceylon, and it holds an admitted claim to the best attention of the British cabinet. The only disadvantage attached to the noble harbour is, that the tide does not rise to a sufficient height to admit of the construction of wet docks for vessels of a large size. Every other convenience is amply afforded; and that obstacle may no doubt be surmounted by skill and industry. People were then employed in cutting down the groves of cocoa-nut and palmyra trees, within cannon shot of the two forts, that no shelter might be left for an invading enemy. Great quantities of thick under-wood have been cleared away, by which means the climate is rendered, in general, healthful. At this period the air was so salubrious, and the scenes so exhilarating, that Mr. North termed his villa there the Montpelier of India.

Trincomallee is still susceptible of many improvements, and if it continue to be fostered with sufficient care, may not only promote the commercial interests, but also increase the triumphs of the United Kingdom. At present it carries on but little trade, exhibits only a few traces of agriculture, and does not possess many attractions besides those which have been mentioned. Every quarter presents scenes of exquisite beauty. To delineate them all would require

much time and labour, the scenery affording materials sufficient to compose a splendid volume. Those views comprehending the most important objects have been sketched, but an abler pencil would be necessary to convey adequate conceptions of prospects so delightful.

The houses in the fort of Trincomallee are very indifferent, far inferior to common cottages in England, and destitute both of comfort and convenience. Scarcely one of them is water-proof; and during the rainy season an officer often cannot find a dry corner wherein to place his couch. On that account camp cots have been introduced, with canvass tops painted, to exclude rain. Many of the buildings are in ruins, from the effects of protracted sieges, the dilapidations of which have never been repaired. The roof of the garrison church was likewise battered down, in which condition it still continues; and the shell of the house is employed as a tennis-court for the amusement of the soldiers. No English chaplain has ever resided at this station.

The bungaloes dispersed over the circumjacent country form very pleasant residences, being always cool, and commanding open prospects. In them, during our continuance here, Farenheit's thermometer has seldom risen above eighty-two degrees. At this season it generally ranges from 80° to 84°. During the rains in the latter months of the year it falls as low as 69°, and rarely, in the hottest season,

mounts above 94°. About half a mile from the fort stands a native village, where the productions of the country are brought to market, and exposed for sale every lawful day, according to the custom which prevails over all India. The inhabitants belong to the description of those called Malabars, whose language they speak, whose religion they profess, and whose dress they wear.

Notwithstanding what has been said, Trincomallee is still the least healthful of the stations which we now occupy in Ceylon, and continues subject to seasons of extraordinary sickness and mortality. The heavy falls of rain are sometimes protracted beyond the usual period, and immediately succeeded by hot sultry weather, and insupportable sunshine. In the year 1797, a great loss of lives was sustained by the 80th regiment: and in 1804, the 19th regiment, and other troops of the garrison, were exposed to a similar calamity. The fever, which raged at those periods, was not contagious, and proceeded, both times, from the same causes, a vitiated atmosphere, want of accommodation, bad living, and intemperance. Even in the seasons when Trincomallee was best provided with fresh provisions, the garrison subsisted five days of the week on salt meat, without the addition of any other vegetable but rice.

The governor, on his arrival, lived a few days in the fort, in the house of colonel (now major-general) Champagné, the commandant; who, as well as the other gentlemen of the

settlement, rejoiced in an opportunity of affording hospitable entertainment to his excellency and all his train. He then removed to a favourite villa, about one English mile from the town, where several splendid dinners were given by him to all the officers civil and military, enlivened by the most shining social qualities, and enriched by the choicest wines which the market of India affords.

On the 3d of October the writer visited the hot-wells of Cannia, situate six miles north-west of Trincomallee. Six of them are built with stone and mortar, some in square, others in circular, forms, rather less than two feet in diameter, and, in general, about four feet deep. These are enclosed by a four-cornered stone wall, six feet high, through which admission is obtained by only one door. Many other springs, however, are scattered on the open ground round about, appearing entirely in their natural state. In all, the water is light and pleasant to the taste; and in two of them it is as hot as it is common to drink any liquid. Bubbles of air and smoke are seen constantly ascending from them. The natives and other Indians who visit this place take great delight in bathing, sitting down by the side of the well, lifting up the water in brass or earthen pots, and pouring it on their heads for hours together. The same method of using the bath prevails all over Ceylon: many Europeans adopt it, frequently sitting in a tub, or on a bare pavement, until the contents of one hundred

vessels are thrown over them. This manner of applying the warm bath can hardly be accounted so luxurious as when a cistern is formed sufficiently capacious to admit the immersion of the whole body. The water of Cannia, however, has often proved beneficial to various descriptions of patients, in cases of bruises, sprains, rheumatism, and other disorders. Its mineral qualities were analysed by Thomas Christie, esq. surgeon of his Majesty's 80th regiment, now superintendant of hospitals in Ceylon; and the following account of it, drawn from the result of his experiments, was published in the Madras Gazette early in the year 1799. It appeared there without the permission of the author; but although not originally intended for the press, it is considered as sufficiently accurate.

"The hot wells of Cannia are of different degrees of heat. They, however, evidently communicate; for the water in all of them is at an equal distance from the surface of the ground, and a body immersed in one raises the height of the water in the others. As the water also from the six wells exhibits the same chemical phenomena, there can be little doubt that they all proceed from the same spring.

"On examining the heat of the different wells with great attention, it was found that they varied from 98° to 106½° of Farenheit's thermometer, nearly in proportion to their different depths.

"Bubbles of air are seen to rise from the bottom of the wells; and it was therefore conceived that the water might be acidulous, and impregnated with fixed air. It was found, however, that the water did not sparkle in a glass more than common water, nor did it turn a vegetable colour red; and on filling a large case bottle with the water, and tying an empty wet bladder to the mouth of it, it was found, after shaking a long time, that no air was disengaged. It would therefore appear that the water is not impregnated with any uncommon quantity of air; but that the bubbles are merely common air disengaged from the water by the heat. As the air, however, might be collected with a proper apparatus, its quality may be easily ascertained.

"The water has nothing peculiar in its colour, smell, or taste. It is not crude or hard, for it dissolves soap easily, and perfectly. It contains no sulphureous principle, for a piece of polished silver, when immersed in it, contracted no rust nor dark colour. It contains no acid, or alkali in a disengaged state, for on mixing a delicate vegetable colour with it, no change to a green or red colour was perceptible. The water does not contain any selenite, or earthy, or alkaline matter combined with vitriolic acid, for on adding a solution of mercury in nitrous acid to it no sediment was deposited; nor does it contain any earthy matter in combination with marine acid, nor any copper, nor zinc, for on mixing mineral and volatile alkalis with the water no pre-

cipitate was formed.—On mixture with a decoction of galls, the water acquired a blackish tinge, which shews it to be slightly impregnated with iron.

" On a mixture with a solution of silver in nitrous acid, some precipitate of luna cornea was produced; this shews it to contain a very small portion of sea salt, but not more than the common water of Trincomallee, upon which the solution of silver had the same effect, with this difference, that the precipitate from the water of the hot wells was blackest, probably from the impregnation of iron.

" These experiments were made at the wells, with water from those of the highest and of the lowest temperature, on the 4th of July, 1798, when the heat of the atmosphere was at 91 degrees. They were also repeated upon the water, after it was brought to Trincomallee, with the same effect.

" From them it would appear that the hot wells of Cannia possess few mineral qualities, or any virtue besides their heat, which is of a temperature not unfavourable for hot bathing.

" For many complaints also, the drinking of hot water is recommended, and for this purpose, as well as for bathing, a hot spring is preferable to water heated artificially, because it is always of a fixed degree of temperature."

Those fountains are regarded with religious veneration by the natives; and a small Hindoo temple is erected near

to them. The Brahmins in waiting will not allow any stranger, less sanctified than themselves, to enter into the holy of holies; but they open the door of the chamber which contains the object of worship, and permit him to look in. Only one figure can be discerned, part of which seemed to resemble a serpent with an expanded hood; but it was so far removed, and so much veiled by surrounding darkness, that the form could not be accurately ascertained. On the floor of the outer portico stood two stone images of a small size, one representing a bullock looking towards the door of the pagoda, the other a lingam, of a make flatter than usual. On both of these were strewed pieces of green leaves; and a plate full of consecrated ashes lay on the pavement beside them. The priests, and other servants of the sanctuary, sat in the porch upon tigers' and panthers' skins. Some had red hair dyed artificially; and others had their naked bodies painted white all over. A few were employed writing on slates in the Malabar character, and appeared stationed to receive the oblations of itinerant devotees, and to administer to them a portion of the holy ashes. Close to the pagoda stands a beautiful spreading tree, enclosed by a square wall, originally planted in honour of the springs. It belongs to that species distinguished as the *arisamarum* of the Malabars, the *bogaha* of the Cingalese, and the *ficus religiosa* of Linnæus.

Near to Cannia rises a steep hill, from the top of which

is seen a very rich and extensive prospect, including the narrow winding frith, or salt water river of Pulaculla, the forts of Trincomallee and Ostenburg, the harbour, a large and noble front of perpendicular rocks, half way to it, and thick woods all around them. On the summit of the above-mentioned hill are shewn two monumental piles of earth enclosed with loose stones, one thirty-six feet in length, and ten in breadth, the other ten feet long, and three broad. They are said to be the dimensions of a giant and his son, who were buried there at a very remote period in the fabulous history of Ceylon. The fiction is credited by the common people, who look upon those imaginary tombs as objects of great curiosity.

On the 4th of October, the governor inspected his Majesty's 80th regiment, the detachment of artillery, and the first battalion of the 7th regiment of Madras native infantry. As soon as his excellency appeared on the grand parade, a salute of nineteen guns was fired from the field pieces. The 80th regiment then presented a general salute; and, accompanied by the artillery, marched twice past him, the officers saluting, first in slow time, secondly in quick time. They then formed again into line, and the inspection terminated with another general salute. The sepoys were inspected afterwards upon their own exercising ground. All the corps afforded complete satisfaction, and appeared to be in a state of the highest discipline.

On the 6th of October the governor and his party left the fort of Trincomallee at day-break, stopped a few minutes and drank coffee in the bungaloe of captain M. W. Carr, on the esplanade; and thence proceeded a stage of eight miles and a quarter to Neelavelly, where we breakfasted.

A salute of nineteen guns was fired from the fort of Trincomallee. and the same repeated from the batteries of Ostenburg. The reception which Mr. North experienced in these garrisons, the demonstration of joy on his arrival, and visible regret at his departure, evinced the high estimation in which he was held, and the just sense which was entertained of his mild government, by the British inhabitants, as well as by the natives. On his passing through the pettah and suburbs, all descriptions of men, women, and children were drawn up in a line before their houses, eagerly catching the opportunity of presenting his excellency with their undisguised *salam*, or token of obeisance. The different expressions of countenances, and the various modes of salutation, warmed the feelings of philanthropy, and yielded a most interesting pleasure.

A party of lascoreens marched foremost in the procession, bearing three stands of colours. A train of thirteen palanquins followed, each attended by thirteen bearers. Only four carry at one time, but they are relieved every quarter of an hour, and shift the pole from the shoulder of one to that of another, without stopping

the motion of the vehicle. The thirteenth man acts as cook to the set, and carries as his burden all the culinary apparatus. Five hundred coolies preceded the party last night, laden with tents and other necessary baggage.

The greater part of the road from Trincomallee to Neelavelly is cut through the bosom of a thick forest, and exhibits as rich and romantic an appearance as it is possible for a fertile imagination to conceive. Every step is enlivened with delightful prospects which court admiration. Many highly picturesque and striking scenes are entirely composed of majestic trees in the decaying grandeur of age, embellished with the most elegant species of shrubs, waving their flattering arms, and clinging round the hoary stems. In some places the lofty and spreading branches unite together over our heads, affording a grateful and salutary shade, impervious even at noon-day. In others, the country opens, presenting wider views, varied with sheets of water and wooded islands. Masses of solid rock form many of the rising grounds, the effect of which is greatly improved by the grateful verdure which encloses them with ornamental borders. At a little distance to the west of the salt water river, or narrow frith of Pulaculla, stand two perpendicular rocks situate upon the summit of a hill, apparently some of those which were seen, in an opposite direction, from the hot wells of Cannia.

All the way from Trincomallee to Pulaculla, a distance

of four English miles, the road is exceedingly good, and carriages are driven upon it with perfect ease and safety.

But the latter part of the stage is, in several places, rugged, and impassable by any wheeled vehicle. A small curricle was purchased by the governor at Trincomallee, for the purpose of affording an agreèable exercise at those stations where business required his residence for a considerable length of time; but it was necessarily taken to pieces, and carried this part of the journey upon men's shoulders.

The rest-house at Neelavelly is tolerably good, built of earth and clay, smoothed over with plaster, and thatched with leaves. On this occasion the roof was lined in the inside, with white calico; and the apartments were fitted up in a better style than usual, in honour of the distinguished traveller who was for a short time to occupy them. But the soil around being dry and sandy, a gale of wind obscured the breakfast table with clouds of dust, and rendered a beautiful situation for once uncomfortable. The most ornamental objects at this choultry are some large spreading tamarind trees, the leaves of which resemble those of the mountain ash, but are considerably smaller, and still more of a light pinnated appearance. This morning we passed some fields of paddee, and a small number of black cattle. Colonel Champagné accompanied the governor to Neelavelly, where the party rested until three o'clock, P. M.

Tiffen being then ended, the commandant took leave, and set out for Trincomallee. We proceeded on our journey, and accomplished a stage of thirteen miles to Couchavelly, where we dined and spent the night.

Whenever, in the course of travelling, a pool of fresh water came in the way, whether clear or muddy, the palanquin bearers and coolies, although drenched with profuse perspiration, fearlessly allayed their thirst with plentiful, and not unsalutary, libations.

The country people in this part of the island seem uncommonly innocent and happy; and the females, although perfectly modest, do not shun the eye of strangers with that jealous caution which prevails in other provinces of India. Their gait is elegant; their countenances are pleasant and comely, exhibiting that species of beauty and placid dignity for which Raphael's paintings are so much celebrated.

This afternoon we passed the deep sequestered valley of Pennacarachee. An inlet of the sea, winding there amongst romantic rocks, exhibits the appearance of a delightful river. In many places trees, in full vigour, grow amidst the water, which is three feet deep, and as transparent as the purest crystal. The rising grounds are covered with variegated foliage of a beautiful and lively verdure. All the ingenuity of art combined with the most bountiful effusions of nature, could produce no scenery more captivating than those uncultivated wilds. One column of rock, rising out of the summit of a circular mount, is particularly striking, bearing a strong

resemblance to a huge Egyptian mummy, standing in an erect position. The native Ceylonese relate an Ovidean story concerning it; importing that a lady of quality, walking in the valley attended by a handsome slave, was induced, from the privacy of the situation, to indulge in the gratification of unlawful love; and that the superintending deity, offended at the profanation of the sacred grove, metamorphosed the frail transgressors into this conspicuous monument.

At Couchavelly there is only a very small rest-house, or choultry, built of branches and leaves of trees. But several capacious tents were pitched, one of which formed the banqueting hall, and the others afforded nocturnal accommodations for all the party.

When assembled together at this place, intelligence reached us of the attempt which had been made upon the life of our beloved sovereign in the theatre of Drury-lane. We thanked God, whose goodness had averted the blow of the assassin, drank his Majesty's health with convivial honours, and Mr. Farrell, a singer of very superior excellence, favoured us with "*God save the King*," including the new lines added on the occasion by Mr. Sheridan. All present joined in the chorus.

On the 7th of October we left Couchavelly at day-break. The singing of the birds was then delightful, and the mild radiance of the rising run, gilding the surrounding forests, rendered the commencement of this morning's journey pecu-

Penacaratchy between Coompierdi & Cutchacolly

liarly pleasant. We were gratified with the sight of many remarkable rocks and romantic prospects; and after travelling eight miles and a quarter, arrived at the halting ground of Teria (or Peria), about eight o'clock A. M.

On this side of the island cocoa-nut trees are rarely to be seen. No ornamental curtains line the roads, on our right and left, as they did all the way from Columbo to Tengalle. Triumphal arches, however, are erected in many places, covered with the green boughs of common shrubs. The rest-house of Teria is situate in the vicinity of some curious rocks, and a beautiful valley of corn fields, surrounded with woods and verdant hills. The accommodations for travellers are small bungaloes, formed of light stakes driven into the ground, and covered with the smaller branches and leaves of trees. As the sun's rays penetrate easily through so slight a skreen, the quarters are rather hot in the middle of the day, but at night no closer shelter is necessary. Indeed, such is the mild temperature of the evening, that when it does not rain, many individuals of the party find it more agreeable to place their palanquins in the open air, or under the boughs of a spreading tree. The palanquins contain their beds, and form their sleeping chambers, and when stationed on the limits of the sea shore, they afford the means of enjoying a most luxurious repose.

At this place a man was shewn to us who had been torn down and wounded by an animal, said to be a wild bear,

but was then in a fair way of doing well. The animal flew upon him some weeks before, about five o'clock in the evening, as he was returning with the bag of post letters from Couchavelly, and having lacerated his head, in many places, left him in a state of stupefaction. He, however, soon revived, and walked upwards of an English mile to his own hut, which, in his mangled state, was considered as a very extraordinary exertion. The animal encountered him on turning the corner of a thick wood, and is supposed to have been taken by surprise, as few of the wild inhabitants of those forests are wont to make unprovoked attacks upon the human species.

In the afternoon we renewed our march, and after advancing twelve miles, halted for a short time on the banks of the large river of Cockley. Soon after leaving Teria, many fine rocks and beautiful prospects gratify the eye of taste, and present an ample field for exercising the pencil of an able artist. Shallow inlets of the sea so frequently intersected the road, that the party had to wade through sheets of water six times in one hour.

Our passage over the river Cockley was effected without any material accident, although somewhat retarded by the violence of a gale of wind, and a deficiency of convenient boats. No more than three canoes could be procured at the ferry, and only one of a size sufficient to transport palanquins, two of which were placed on it at each trip.

The boats were pulled across the river with ropes, by men wading up to the neck in the water.

The river is salt and brackish for the distance of three miles from the sea: higher up it is fresh, and fit for drinking. In one place it is four miles in breadth. It is frequented by many species of birds, of different sizes, the greater part of which are of a pure white colour. One species, with a neck and legs of great length, resembles the heron. The body of it is all as white as snow, excepting a touch of delicate green upon the down close to the eye. Some of its longest feathers are of as fine a texture as those in the tail of the bird of paradise; and its tender down is softer than that of the swan. One of the white birds is equal to the common swan in dimensions, but belongs to the species distinguished by a bill in the form of a spoon. Some of the smaller birds resemble the *cocatoo*, common sea gull, and sand lark. The river abounds with a variety of fishes, many of which are of an excellent quality for eating. Sharks here prey upon a beautiful little fish, which springs out of the water, and moves along the surface by a repeated impulse to elude the jaws of its enemy. But the pursuer keeps pace with the fugitive, and often catches it in his mouth when it is ready to drop into its native element. The little fish here mentioned is not furnished with wings like the flying fish, and cannot remain so long out of the water at one stretch. One of the boat-men informed us that, three years ago, when he was paddling upon the river, his companion

happened to fall over-board, and was immediately carried off by a shark, and he saw him no more. Alligators likewise infest this river, some of which are described by the natives as equal to one of the canoes in length, that is not less than fifteen feet. It is mentioned as a remarkable circumstance, that they destroy many of the inhabitants at the distance of a few miles from the sea, but that there is no instance of any person being attacked by them near to the mouth of the river. On the dissection of one of these hideous animals, the body of a man, deprived only of the head, was found lodged in its stomach.

The banks of the river are level grounds ornamented with wood, as far as the view extends; and the sand bounding its channel is lined with rich beds of common oysters, that may be gathered with the greatest ease. The higher shore is covered with a variety of loose shells, amongst which those of the cockle are the most abundant.

Travellers generally stop for refreshment at the little village of Cockley, half a mile north of the river. But our journey being directed towards Aripo on the opposite coast of the island, leaving Cockley at the distance of half a furlong on our right, we struck into the narrow path that leads through the inland provinces, and proceeded five miles farther to Cottawakanni, making the evening stage, in all, seventeen miles.

The greater part of the ground through which we passed from the river to this place is an open plain bounded by

woods. In some places it is sandy and barren; in others it displays excellent pasture, and appears to have been once regularly cultivated. We saw, however, only a few small herds of cattle. The deficiency of these useful animals may be partly accounted for by a plague which had raged among them, and swept away at least one half of their number in every province of Ceylon.

This fatal murrain extended itself in the year 1800, more or less, through the whole island, but was most destructive in the northern parts, where it carried off four-fifths of the cattle.

At Cottawakanni, which is a small plain, surrounded by large trees, on the northern banks of the river Cockley, some temporary bungaloes were constructed of common brushwood, and a well was dug, which afforded excellent water. These necessary arrangements were made by a party of pioneers who preceded us on the march. There was not a native's hut to be seen in the neighbourhood, nor any appearance of culture or inhabitants. Four tents, likewise, were pitched for shelter during the night; and we experienced, for the first time during the period of our encampment, several slight showers of rain. The climate here is cooler than at Trincomallee: the inhabitants whom we saw on the road are of a lighter colour; the men stout and well made, the women comely. The only European residing between this and Trincomallee is an invalid Dutch sergeant,

who is stationed at Cockley, for the purpose of forwarding the daily mail. He has a Ceylonese wife, and five swarthy children, and has himself contracted a strong Indian complexion. Notwithstanding poverty, and seclusion from the society of his countrymen, this retired soldier complains of no wants, and seems blessed with contentment. Since leaving Trincomallee we have passed several banyan trees, with roots descending from their spreading branches.

After breakfast on the 8th we continued our journey through a fine open plain, bordered by thick forests. About one hundred yards before us we saw a herd of deer, upwards of two hundred in number. They appeared for some time grazing in the valley undisturbed; but being alarmed at our approach, they retired precipitately into the adjacent wood.

Many of the wild trees in this part of the country are loaded with fruits, resembling the wood apple, the lime, and the cherry, the last of which is wholesome and pleasant to the taste. The larger trees that rise conspicuously in the forests are elegantly adorned with lofty shrubs, the flowers of which display hues of crimson, yellow, and white. Some of these shrubs present an appearance resembling the honeysuckle, both in the structure of the blossom and the manner of twining round the trees. After travelling a short way we passed the borders of a small lake, where there are some large rocks and fine trees. The remainder of the road was

rugged and broken. At half past one o'clock P. M. we halted at Wannacullum, where we found a well of muddy water, and the wretched remains of three ruined huts. Only one of them had a little thatch left upon its roof, which afforded shade for eight persons sitting round a small table. The distance of this deserted hamlet from Cottawakanni is eleven miles: and one cocoa-nut tree was not discernible on any part of the way. After *tiffen* we proceeded eight miles farther to Tandewan, a small scattered village, surrounded with paddee fields, thick brush-wood, a few young cocoa-nut, and some full-grown tamarind trees. The road was finely shaded, but very hilly, deep, and difficult to travel. Almost all of it winds through an uncultivated and dreary forest, where nothing is to be seen but majestic trees, towering amidst thickets of under-wood. The palanquin bearers could not run under their loads as they usually do, but were obliged to choose their steps with caution, and move slowly all the way. The shades of night coming on, the party of natives who formed the van-guard sounded their drums and horns with increasing diligence, and raised a shouting similar to that which accompanies the hunting of elephants, for the purpose of preventing the approach of any of the wild inhabitants of the forests. About three miles before terminating the stage we passed over one open plain, which has been cultivated, and is now a meadow: but no other traces of population were seen.

On the 9th, after enjoying our morning repast under the shade of a fine tamarind tree, at Tandewan, we proceeded six miles to Annativamadum, the highest situation which lies in the way when crossing the island in this direction. The grounds slope towards the north, and rise to their greatest eminences in the southern provinces.

Annativamadum is beautifully situated, and affords comfortable accommodation to travellers in the midst of a country infested with wild animals. A piece of ground set apart for the convenience of strangers is enclosed by a strong palisade, containing a well of excellent water, and five small bungaloes, built of the branches of trees, and thatched with straw. There was likewise sufficient room for the pitching of his excellency's tents within this fence. At a little distance from it five or six native huts are seen, not without inhabitants. On one side a large open plain is left for pasturage, bordered by a variety of beautiful trees and shrubs, presenting rural landscapes in the style most admired in Britain. Every part of the vegetable world at this place bears a strong resemblance to what is seen in our native country; and the scenery appears laid out with a degree of elegance which human taste could hardly equal. On the other side is a wide field, of corresponding dimensions, in a state of culture, divided into a great number of little beds, formed by narrow embankments, which are raised to preserve the water about the growing paddee, and to enable the

peasants to walk easily about it when the ground is overflowed.

A large party of our native followers took up their station in a corner of the first-mentioned plain, where they discovered a pool of good water. On that side also appear the remains of a large dike or mound of earth, which probably once formed part of a tank to retain rain-water for the purposes of agriculture. The coolies dug round holes in the ground, and little passages on one side of them. In these they kindled fires with sticks, and placed earthen pots upon them to cook their rice, a portion of which, with a little salt, was their only fare. When the rice is boiled into soup, they pour it into deep dishes made of palmyra leaves, and drink it; in which state it is called *conjee.*

Here are a few oxen and buffaloes, and a small number of cocoa-nut trees. The inhabitants being Malabars, their dress is the same as at Batticaloe and Trincomallee. The higher ranks of the men wear light turbands, large bunches of ear-rings, and a piece of white calico about the waist, hanging over the knees. The women use only one mantle, which is gracefully put on, and answers all the purposes of the various pieces of European dress.

This part of the country is called the Wanny (which signifies *scarcity)* and belongs to the district of Moletive.

On the 10th the governor, his aide de camp, and the writer of this narrative, left Annativamadum before day-

break. A little time was necessary to procure refreshment for so large a party in a poor country: the detachment therefore halted with the other gentlemen and the heavy baggage, under orders to follow his excellency next morning. Mr. North was anxious to repair with all possible speed to the inspection of the pearl banks at Aripo, that being the object which induced him to cross the island in this direction, instead of travelling the more common route by Jaffnapatam.

We passed several farm-houses surrounded with paddec fields, and little orchards nicely fenced. The huts, being constructed of twigs and straw, seem clean and comfortable. The inhabitants want nothing which could increase their happiness. The children playing about the doors are numerous and healthful. We stopped a few minutes at the village of Cannagaraincullang, eight miles from Annativamadum, and were treated by the peasants with a refreshing cup of delicious milk. The country exhibits a small degree of cultivation, some palmyra and cocoa-nut trees, and considerable herds of cattle. The little cottages are shaded by noble spreading trees, which abound in this part of the island. At Cannagaraincullang there is a small lake of fresh water. After a stage of fifteen miles we reached Palliavillang-cullang, at ten o'clock A. M.—The choultry here is comfortable, and apartments are neatly fitted up to receive the governor, although in a style less gaudy than those on the

southern and western coasts. Adjoining to these bungaloes stands a set of farm houses thatched with straw, and occupied by a small number of inhabitants. Many of the natives have deserted this province on account of the recent dry and sultry seasons, which have prevented the growth of grain. But notwithstanding the prevailing scarcity, we had the good fortune to be furnished with plenty of excellent rice, and fowls in good condition, articles which, on this expedition, formed the principal ingredients both of our breakfast and our dinner. The road in general was easy and pleasant, but in some places hilly and broken. It presented nothing to our view except a variegated expanse of forests, and, now and then, a few cultivated fields. We left Palliavilangcullang at half past one o'clock P. M., and arrived at Panangamma at half past five, having travelled twelve miles pretty nearly in a westerly course. Scarcely any appearance of a path could be traced, and even our guides seemed to be chiefly directed by the sun. We passed a good many paddee fields, and humble cottages ornamented by some cocoa-nut and tamarind trees; the latter of which were, as usual, large and picturesque.

On the 11th we left Panangamma at half past five o'clock in the morning. The palanquin bearers objected to set out at an earlier hour, on account of the wild elephants that infest the road. Recent traces of these noble quadrupeds, as well as of wild buffaloes and deer, were conspicuous all the way.

Twenty minutes past ten we halted at Puducullum to enjoy the refreshment of a glass of milk, warm from the cow. Here are several sets of farm houses, a few groups of palmyra trees, and some fields in a state of culture. At noon we reached Vertitivoe, the termination of a stage of eighteen miles. After an early dinner in a tolerable bungaloe, we proceeded six miles farther to Mantot, where we spent the night. The ground over which we passed was in general flat, sandy, and open. The rest-house at this place is very comfortable, and adjoins the ruins of a Portuguese church, both of which are built of stone and mortar.

At seven o'clock in the morning of the 12th, having been revived with a cup of coffee, we left Mantot, and after travelling twelve miles in three hours, arrived at the humble fortress of Aripo, on the sea coast. Here his excellency was welcomed by lieut. colonel Barbut, and Mr. William Boyd. The former, in the capacity of agent of revenue for the district of Jaffnapatam, entertained us in this obscure corner with that elegant hospitality for which he has long been celebrated, in every situation that it has been his lot to occupy. The latter, who was here as the superintendent of the pearl fishery, has long fulfilled the duty of a faithful secretary to Mr. North, and likewise discharged functions of the highest trust in the government of Ceylon, with zealous attention and strict integrity.

The distance from Trincomallee to this place, by the

route which we travelled, is one hundred and forty-five English miles. A computation, formed from the time spent upon the road, accorded exactly with a report given in by the conductor of a perambulator, who accompanied the party.

The remainder of the suite reached Aripo at one o'clock P. M. on the 13th, and the party continued at this station until the 26th of the same month. During all that time the wind blew steadily from the sea, and the climate was remarkably pleasant. But not one day occurred in which a boat could proceed to the oyster banks, so that the governor was prevented from being himself an inspector of the present state of the pearls; and his retinue were at this time deprived of the satisfaction of witnessing the diving and other operations of the fishery.

The small fort of Aripo has two bastions, contains one building of two stories, and some lower houses. The works are but slightly constructed, and the post seems never to have possessed either strength or consequence. Being intended only as the residence of an occasional guard, and situate on a barren shore, it answers all the purposes which are required. Close to it stands a small but comfortable rest-house, with a tiled roof; and on this occasion a row of temporary rooms was constructed of palmyra leaves, for the accommodation of his excellency's retinue. At the distance

of five hundred yards, towards the north, lies a small village inhabited chiefly by fishermen, and adorned with a neat Portuguese chapel rising from its centre, to which the natives regularly resort with much apparent devotion. The forms of the church of Rome, resembling the pageantry of Hindoo worship, and immediately affecting the senses, naturally produce a powerful influence on a people blinded by ignorance, and guided by superstition.

The face of the adjacent country is level, sandy, and partly covered with low brushwood. The sea beach, which is entirely composed of sand, descends almost perpendicularly from the water's edge: and the large boats, called *donies*, are safely moored along-side of it, having one cable fixed from the bow to a pole upon the shore, and another dropped, with an anchor over the stern into the sea. In this manner the vessels lie so close to the strand that a person might step into them: at the same time, they float completely, and ride in full security. The gulf being narrow, no surf is perceptible, and there is scarcely any other part of the coast of Ceylon where those barks can anchor with similar advantages.

Two days before our departure from Aripo, captain Moubray killed two young crocodiles seven feet in length. They were lying on the borders of a large tank, the water of which was nearly dried up. The captain boldly attacked

the one after the other with a spear; and they were dragged in triumph by some of the natives, and laid before the governor's tent.

Our course being now bent towards Jaffnapatam, we left Aripo at six o'clock in the morning of the 26th, and travelled twelve miles to the island of Manaar, where we arrived at half past nine A. M., having occasion to cross only a very narrow channel in a boat. The greater part of the road leads through a barren heath, here and there enlivened with thickets of large shrubs, and strewed with carcases of dead cattle. We crossed two rivers, passed one Portuguese church, two villages, and several little farms ornamented with groups of palmyra trees.

The island of Manaar is situate a little beyond the ninth degree of north latitude, and borders on the eightieth of east longitude. Its length is eighteen miles, its breadth two miles and a half. Part of it is covered with palmyra and cocoa-nut trees, but the bulk of the soil is merely a mound of sea sand, and fresh water is scarce and bad, and often difficult to be procured. The wells are shallow, and the natives frequently wait several hours before they can collect a few pints of that necessary element. If they dig deeper, the water becomes brackish and unwholesome. The climate is, however, at present healthy, and is rendered agreeably cool by constant winds. The fort stands close to the strait, and fronts the main land of Ceylon. It is a square,

with four bastions, neatly built of hewn stone, and surrounded by a wide ditch. Twenty-eight guns are mounted on the works, four of which are brass. Several field pieces, in bad condition, lie on the ground within the square: and eight heavy dismounted cannons are laid at the outside of the gate. So wretched was the state of the ordnance, that a salute could not be fired on the arrival of the governor at this station. His excellency, however, was received on the wharf by the commanding officer, major Ford of his Majesty's 80th regiment, a lieutenant's guard of his Majesty's 19th regiment of foot, and all the members of the provincial court. About the distance of one furlong from the fort lies a neat little town, containing many comfortable houses, a small Dutch protestant chapel, and a spacious mansion occupied by the commandant of the garrison. Within the fort two reservoirs are constructed near to the walls, so situate as to receive all the rain that falls upon the works. This is the only good water to be found within the distance of one mile. Over the gate the date of 1686 is carved in stone, and may be presumed to specify the year of its erection. This being the nearest and most direct channel of communication between Ceylon and the continent of India, the principal use of the fortress is to guard the frontier, and to prevent illicit commerce.

On the day of our arrival here, a committee was held at noon for enquiring into the state of the poor; and in the

evening the party attended divine service, with the troops of the garrison. The usual force stationed at Manaar is only one company of sepoys. The detachment of the 19th regiment now lying there had marched from Columbo to quell insurrections in the intermediate provinces.

Early in the morning of the 28th we left Manaar, rested during the heat of the day at Vertitivoe, and slept at Ilpacadua. The first stage of the 29th brought us to Caudarimony, and we spent the night at Poonereen.

Colonel Barbut had returned some time before to Jaffnapatam, and again met his excellency at this post.

Here is a small Dutch fort, about one hundred feet square, having two bastions, built chiefly of bricks and mortar. The walls are still entire; and the houses within afford comfortable accommodation to travellers. But the same buildings, if exhibited in England, would convey no other ideas but those of wretchedness and penury. A person who has never visited a tropical climate finds it difficult to conceive how little shelter is necessary for a traveller, and how few conveniences are sufficient to afford all the gratifications which can be enjoyed in the most luxurious hotels in colder countries. A Dutch invalid sergeant resides at this place, employed in the department of the post office. The surrounding lands are beautiful, and well cultivated: and the variety of other trees interspersed amongst the cocoas gives them a richer and more elegant appearance

than when their naked stems are displayed unornamented with any foliage. No hills are to be seen in this direction, but gentle undulations in the ground gratify the eye, and exhibit a pleasing resemblance to the wide extending fields in the plains of Great Britain. The groups of trees seem as if they had been planted and arranged merely to ornament the face of the country. The grounds under tillage and the farm houses are neatly enclosed with fences; and folds are constructed for the cattle. Since entering the province of Jaffnapatam, a striking improvement has been observed in the aspect of the country. The roads are in high order, formed of a proper breadth, with beautiful hedges on each side: the inhabitants are clean and well clothed, and every object in view wears an air of comfort. Since lieutenant-colonel Barbut took charge of this district in 1796, the revenue drawn from it by government has become threefold what it then was, at the same time that the inhabitants have proportionally increased in riches, industry, and contentment. Provisions are there extremely cheap and plentiful. A fat sheep is bought for two shillings sterling, and a lean one for half that sum; while at Columbo the same articles sell at sixteen times these prices. In this part of the island, however, the consumption of mutton is very small, and the farmer rears sheep chiefly for the advantages which their dung affords as a manure in the cultivation of tobacco.

In the morning of the 30th, after breakfast, we embarked at Poonereen, on board of colonel Barbut's accommodation-boat, and sailed about fifteen miles down an arm of the sea to a choultry within two miles of the fort of Jaffnapatam. A fleet of smaller barges, trimmed with outriggers, accompanied us, carrying palanquins, bearers, and baggage.

Some of these boats were manned by natives of the small islands called the *two brothers*. They are the handsomest, finest limbed, and most athletic of any Indians whom we have seen. The particulars in their persons worthy of notice are, very thick and neat ears, no fat, narrow haunches, open chests, broad shoulders, the distance from haunches to shoulders longer than common, legs rather slender but well-proportioned, feet and hands beautifully made, bones remarkably strong, muscles large and distinctly seen, skin extremely black, all of one colour, perfectly smooth, teeth of the purest white and most elegant formation, uncontaminated by the juice of betel.

An artist, who pointed out these distinguishing marks, counted on many of those men all the muscles from the elbow to the wrist, which is the part of the body where they are most complicated, and most difficult to be discerned. He learned from them the situation of particular lineaments in the human frame, which no statue illustrates with sufficient clearness: and never saw men, in any other

country, who afforded so complete a model for academic painting. They are admirable swimmers, and remain in the water many hours unfatigued. They possess great agility, and are well calculated for the business of sailors, or any employment which requires animated exertion and great pliability of body. They use no clothing except a slip of calico, not larger than a fig leaf, tied with a coarse string round their loins. Some of them, however, wore straw caps, of their own manufacture, in form resembling Grecian helmets. Their countenances presented an aspect of undisguised nature, and rural innocence rarely to be seen. In their national character, they are quiet, peaceable, harmless, contented, and strongly marked by habitual taciturnity. They are all nominally Christians, professing the religion of the church of Rome; and possess no other form of worship. But their knowledge of any faith is in the highest degree limited, if they be not entirely ignorant. We saw none of the females of this tribe; but may reasonably conclude that the distinguishing beauties of the sex are displayed in their persons with corresponding perfection.

Until within these few years last past, this obscure race lived in a state of the greatest poverty. Their only food was fish, which they caught, and a bulbous root which they gathered on the sea side as a substitute for better vegetables. Among the many improvements introduced by colonel

Barbut into every corner of his province, it is pleasing to observe that he has added to the comfort of the indigent inhabitants of the *two brothers*. Since they had the good fortune to attract his notice, they have been kept industriously employed, and their appearance has greatly meliorated. Excellent boats and nets are provided for them, and a plentiful supply of rice is served out as a reward for their toil.

The country is flat all the way from Manaar to Jaffnapatam. In many places the soil is sandy and barren; but in others highly cultivated and fertile, exhibiting a flourishing state of husbandry. The choultry, or resting-place, where we landed, was a large bungaloe richly decorated to receive the governor. A table placed in the centre of the hall was covered with a beautiful display of flowers and fruit, amongst which a profusion of grapes, disposed in tasteful clusters, made an elegant appearance. A native band of music played, and a company of female dancers exhibited all the wild steps and rude gestures peculiar to India. All the Dutch officers, and those of the English, who were not immediately employed in the garrison, surrounded with a concourse of native inhabitants, met his excellency here to pay their respects, and accompanied him the remaining two miles into the fort of Jaffnapatam. On his entering the gate of the outer barrier, a salute com-

menced from the ramparts; and his arrival was celebrated with all the usual honours.

In the house of the commandant he was welcomed by a most accomplished hostess: and during the period of our residence at Jaffnapatam, we were entertained there with a degree of luxury and elegance excelled in no corner of the world. We had heard much in praise of Mrs. Barbut's charms, but after enjoying the pleasure of her society, her engaging qualities exceeded all our expectations. So much beauty and grace, combined with such attractive sweetness, and captivating politeness, are but rarely concentrated in one person. The colonel, uniting indefatigable attention to business with a cheerful disposition and gentle manners, is blessed with the innate talent of inspiring happiness in the bosoms of all around him. Several public dinners and balls were given in his house, on the occasion of the governor's visit, attended by the most respectable European inhabitants of the settlement, among whom were twenty young ladies born in Ceylon of Dutch parents. Brought up entirely in that remote corner, it is not to be supposed that their education is perfect: but they are, in general, comely, and possess a great deal of that artless vivacity and unconstrained deportment which accompany innocence. For many improvements in the style both of their dress and manners they are indebted to the kind patronage of Mrs. Barbut.

It is with deep regret that the writer of these sheets has occasion to add that lieutenant-colonel Barbut the agent of revenue, and commandant above mentioned, died from the effects of a noxious climate, in the service of his king and country, during the Candian campaign of 1803. His death was deplored as a public loss to the island of Ceylon; and he has left behind him the character of an able officer and an amiable man.

A British agent of revenue, or collector of rents in India, possesses all the power and consequence of a proprietor of land and governor of a province. The number of native assistants attached to his department is so great, that he performs his functions with as much ease, and undergoes no more fatigue in collecting the revenue of a province, than the richest nobleman in England experiences in receiving the rents of his estates. It is not therefore difficult to conceive how much the happiness of the people, and the prosperity of the country, depend upon the talents and dispositions of a man placed in a situation of such high importance.

CHAPTER X.

ROUTE ALONG THE COAST OF CEYLON FROM TRINCOMALLEE TO JAFFNAPATAM.

WHEN passing along the eastern coast of Ceylon from Trincomallee to Jaffnapatam, the route as far as the village of Cockly, on the north side of the river, is the same which we travelled on our way to Aripo. That part of the road is therefore already described, by the rude sketch which has been given of it in the preceding chapter. The writer of these sheets having first touched the shores of the island at Trincomallee, and having proceeded thence to Columbo by Jaffnapatam, had an opportunity of seeing a portion of the country, which was cut off from view by the direction of the tour in 1800. On that account a chasm is here filled up by the following extract from a former journal.

The road from Trincomallee to Molative runs almost parallel to the sea coast, which on that side of the island bends towards the north-west. After leaving the cottages

of Cockly, the first ground, generally occupied as a resting-place, is Watuvy, at the distance of fifteen miles. Agreeably accompanied by Anthony Bertolacci, esq., post-master-general in Ceylon, I arrived at that place on the 6th of June, 1799, at which time no building stood there: but materials were then preparing to erect a bungaloe for accommodating the *peons* employed in the business of the post-office. We took shelter from the rays of the sun, during the heat of the day, under the boughs of an Indian fig tree, which was the spot where the post runners were changed and relieved. In all parts of India the regular letter-bags are forwarded merely by men on foot. An adequate establishment of horses would greatly increase the expence of the department; and from the rugged and confined nature of many of the paths, would not much accelerate the speed of the conveyance.

Our mode of travelling, on this occasion, was as simple, and the number of our attendants as much limited, as circumstances would permit. Each person, however, was furnished with a palanquin and thirteen bearers; and two additional *coolies* carried a basket containing refreshments, plates, knives and forks, and other necessary articles. At almost every choultry, or spot of ground allotted for the accommodation of travellers, an assortment of earthen pots was found sufficient for culinary purposes. The top of one of the palanquins answered as a dining-table, breast high,

at which we were obliged to stand: and when we chose to be seated, the sides of those vehicles afforded excellent sofas. (For every one of the party who travelled in company with the governor, a chair was carried by a servant.) At every stage we were furnished with a plentiful supply of rice, fish, and fowls, and sometimes presented with a quarter of venison.

The face of the country, from Cockly to Watuvy, is romantic, varied by open prospects, deep rocky glens, fine spreading trees, and impervious thickets. At four o'clock in the afternoon we set out for Allumbelly, distant only three miles, and arrived there at five. After enjoying the grateful refreshment of a glass of cocoa-nut water, from fruit newly pulled, and having determined to advance no farther on our journey that night, we walked out, for the sake of amusement, into a beautiful winding valley which adjoins the rest-house. There a large plain, cleared of *jungle*, and bounded by variegated woods, bears evident marks of having once been tilled: and a herd of cattle was then grazing in it on good pasture. It contains two ponds of fresh water, which attract flocks of birds, and offer great encouragement to the inhabitants to improve the culture of their native soil. Industry, however, does not appear to be one of their virtues, and even the simplest rudiments of husbandry are little known or practised amongst them. They catch fish in these pools with so much ease, that the

operation seems an enlivening pastime; and when the immediate demands of nature are satisfied, they look for no higher gratifications. Luxury and convenience are to them unknown; and their wants are much fewer than those of the poor inhabitants of less favoured climates.

Knox, speaking of the Cingalese, says what is equally applicable to the Malabars in this part of the country, so far as it regards their general habits. "They are naturally a people given to sloth and laziness; if they can but any ways live, they abhor to work; only what their necessities force them to, they do, that is to get food and raiment. Yet in this I must a little vindicate them; for what indeed should they do with more than food and raiment, seeing as their estates increase, so do their taxes also? and altho' the people be generally covetous, spending but little, scraping together what they can, yet such is the government they are under, that they are afraid to be known to have any thing, lest it be taken away from them. Neither have they any encouragement to industry, having no vend by traffic and commerce for what they have got." This is correctly descriptive of their ancient state: but the Malabars of Ceylon now live under a more liberal government.

A flock of curious birds was resting in the valley. The species appeared to be about the size of a turkey, having the plumage of their bodies black, and that of their necks white. One amongst them, of a still larger size, had a long

yellow neck, and an assemblage of various gaudy colours over the rest of its body. This bird was the first that moved off the ground on observing our approach. The others gradually caught the alarm, departing one by one: and the remainder was suddenly put to flight by the report of a fowling-piece. Many more kinds of the feathered race were likewise seen, both on the open meadow, and in the adjoining woods, lessening in size from those above mentioned, down to the humming-bird. The plumage of many of them displays a great variety of bright and beautiful colours. We heard the screaming of pea-fowls, and saw some of their long feathers scattered on the ground. A great quantity of large snails cased in shells may be included amongst the objects which attracted attention on this spot.

Close to the rest-house stands a Portuguese place of worship, of a humble construction, built solely of clay, and thatched with the leaves of the cocoa-nut tree, plantations of which and of the palmyra surround it. This church is enclosed by a slight fence, within which is a well of excellent water.

Next morning we left Allumbelly at day-break, and proceeded twelve miles to Moletive, where we found the commandant, and two Dutch gentlemen waiting breakfast for us. That officer had received information of our approach from some native travellers who had passed us on the road the preceding day. As there are no inns in Ceylon, the houses of the officers stationed at the out-posts become

the places of public entertainment for European travellers; and when the hosts happen to be men of liberal dispositions, the accommodations which they afford to guests often prove a heavy tax upon them.

As we drew near to Moletive, it presented a pleasant prospect, which was to me the more striking, as I did not expect to see any other structures but such cottages as we had left. Here is a neat village containing several good houses built of stone, white-washed and tiled. The residence of the commanding officer is particularly spacious, and having two stories, is both larger and more commodious than any of the habitations at Trincomallee. A hall on the ground floor of the centre building measures sixty feet in length, and a room above it is of corresponding dimensions. The upper apartment is at present unoccupied, but was some time ago employed as a place of worship by a *Modelear* who commanded the station. This is the first place at which we have seen a table or a chair since leaving Trincomallee: and, after four days of such accommodation, the use of a furnished house afforded us a very gratifying refreshment. At each end of the extensive mansion stand the decayed remains of an earthen battery, but no fortification capable of being applied to immediate use. A few rusty guns lying there are likewise become entirely unfit for service. The village is situate in an open plain, about a quarter of a mile from the sea, of which it com-

mands an extensive prospect. All the way to the shore is a tract of barren sand; but the scenery on the inland side is extremely pleasant, being composed of corn fields, cottages, trees, and meadows enlivened with herds of cattle. This post must have been originally established for the purpose of keeping open the communication between Trincomallee and Jaffnapatam. It is now garrisoned by one company of the Malay regiment: but is not capable of affording any defence as a place of strength; and if attacked by a superior force, the safety of the detachment must depend upon the ability with which their retreat is conducted. In the evening we walked out, attended by the commandant, to a narrow arm of the sea, called the salt-water river. There we saw several large alligators, many thousands of pelicans, some birds of Cyrus, Brahminy kites, which are held in high veneration by the natives, and a variety of the smaller species of the feathered tribe. Three jackals crossed the road at a little distance from us. They belong to the canine genus, and bear a strong resemblance to the common pariar dogs of India. The river, or frith, produces abundance of excellent fish, some extremely small, others as large as a full-grown salmon, covered with similar scales, but having a broader head, and being, when cut, of a white colour. The pelicans above mentioned are of a grey colour, about the size and form of a goose, web-footed, having an immense bill with a bladder under it. The river is divided

by a natural bridge of coral rock, from which many opportunities are afforded of shooting the birds and alligators which frequent it. On each side of this place lies one native hamlet, both of which are surrounded with wild and romantic prospects. The uncultivated grounds are in many parts covered with the cock-spur thorn, and are said to be much infested with snakes.

Next day after an early dinner we left Moletive, and travelled ten miles to Mattulaw, where we slept. On the way Mr. Bertolacci killed several pelicans, and birds of Cyrus, which the palanquin-bearers made into curry, and ate with rice at supper. On the ninth, at day-break, we left Mattulaw, and arrived before nine o'clock, A. M. at Chundicolum, distant fifteen miles. The country between this place and Moletive is plentifully stocked with deer, of three or four different species. Their flesh is rich, and of an excellent flavour; and any person who chooses to indulge in the amusement of shooting, or to employ a servant for that purpose, may eat venison every day in the year. We crossed a broad ford of salt water, killed several larks and wild pigeons, and saw nothing else which commanded attention but a wide expanse of natural woods. In many places the water procured for drinking is indifferent: at some stages it is muddy, and on that account disagreeable to a stranger. But the milk is everywhere of an excellent quality and delicious flavour; and we are sometimes regaled with the

sweet liquor contained in the cocoa-nut. Wherever the trees which produce it are descried, they afford a sure signal of population, and generally appear in little groves at the distance of ten or fifteen miles from each other, always accompanied by native huts. We departed from Chundicolum about two o'clock P. M. and having travelled another stage of fifteen miles, reached Bescooter at sun-set. There we were surprised with the sight of a large assemblage of monkies, sporting amongst the tops of palmyra trees, in a grove of which the choultry is enclosed. Great part of the road is sandy, the country open for one hundred yards on each side, and bounded by extensive plantations of palmyras. Some of these trees exhibit a remarkable appearance being completely entwined with elegant shrubs, and flourishing shoots of the Indian fig-tree, which are supposed to have been planted there through the medium of birds. About one furlong before reaching the choultry of Bescooter, we passed by a small stone redoubt, thirty feet square, and nine feet high, with two bastions at opposite angles. It is built of very strong materials, cemented together with mortar of so hard a consistence, that it cannot be separated without much difficulty from the stone which it encloses. The structure shows it to be one of the most ancient European fortresses in the island; and the ruins scattered around it seem to imply, that it was either blown up by gunpowder, or demolished by artillery. Under

each bastion is a vault, which from the nature of the architecture seems to have been proof against bombs. The walls are now overgrown with flourishing trees, which increase the romantic appearance of the decayed battlements, and add to the solemn contemplations which they inspire. In the midst of a wide and once cultivated country, no other monument of human labour is to be seen; but the grandeur of aged trees, and the tasteful disposition of woods and lawns, incline the eye to look for some other vestiges of ancient art. That so few remains of any buildings are to be discovered, may be partly accounted for, by the perishable nature of the materials of which the habitations of men are composed in these warm climes, and it is well known that every trace of the religious fabrics of the Ceylonese was obliterated with enthusiastic ardour by the idolators of Europe.

We left Bescooter next morning before day-break, and arrived at Klaley at half past eight o'clock A. M. During this stage, also fifteen miles in length, we had a view of the sea both on our right and left, having entered on the neck of land which forms part of the large tract of insulated ground, on one corner of which the fort and town of Jaffnapatam are situate. For a considerable distance we saw no rocks or hills, but the other characteristics of the country continued generally the same. Near to Klaley, as well as on many other parts of the coast of Ceylon, are quantities of sand of

a strong shining black, resembling filings of steel. It is well adapted for being thrown on paper after writing, but seems not to be applied to any other purpose. This day we observed many groups of a tree, the leaves and fruit of which are like those of the pine-apple. It grows out of the barren sand near to the sea side, and is generally known by the name of the bastard (or screw) pine, but the fruit seems not fit to be eaten. We set out from Klaley at two o'clock P. M. and reached Chavacherry at a quarter past four. The greater part of the road ran close along the shore, with the sea on our left hand. The choultry at Chavacherry adjoins to the ruins of a large house, which appears to have been the residence of the parish priest. A square garden wall accompanies the parsonage. Close to it stand the remains of a spacious church. Both are relics of the Portuguese government. The buildings are composed of brick and mortar, and are now surrounded by venerable trees, the decaying grandeur of which harmonizes with the falling ruins. The emissaries of Portugal applied themselves with so much zeal to the introduction of christianity, and the extirpation of every other form of worship in Ceylon, that it is more than probable, had they continued masters of the island, the dominion of the church of Rome would now have been more firmly established there than in any other region of the world.

The choultry at Klaley is the most comfortable on this

road. The landlord is an invalid serjeant, who formerly served the Dutch government, and is now settled there in charge of the post-office. Both he and his wife are born of Ceylonese mothers. Their family consists of a brother and one daughter; and they live contented on a salary of three pagodas, or twenty-four shillings a month. They treated us with great hospitality, and being obliged to the post-master-general for his patronage, they would accept of no remuneration for our entertainment.

On the 11th we left Chavacherry at day-break, and after travelling twelve miles through a level country, exhibiting a state of high cultivation and prosperity, we arrived about nine o'clock in the hospitable mansion of lieutenant-colonel Barbut, within the fort of Jaffnapatam. The distance of this place from Trincomallee is one hundred and fifty-six English miles.

CHAPTER XI.

DESCRIPTION OF JAFFNAPATAM—JOURNEY FROM THAT PLACE TO COLUMBO BY MANAAR—ARIPO—CALPENTEEN—CHILAUW AND NEGUMBO.

THE fort and town of Jaffnapatam are situate towards the northern extremity of Ceylon, in 9° 47′ of north latitude, and 80° 9′ of east longitude. The former is regularly built in the figure of a pentagon, with five bastions; and is furnished with broad ditches and extensive glacis. It appears to be the most modern, and is by far the neatest and best constructed fortress in Ceylon. It is at the same time extremely clean, and in a state of good repair. One side runs parallel to the strait which separates the peninsula of Jaffna from the rest of Ceylon: the other sides are environed by an open and well-cultivated plain. A large square occupies the centre of the fort, the interior of which is a plot of grass enclosed with neat rails, and bounded by streets of excellent houses shaded by majestic trees. On one side of the square

stands a large church, of Dutch architecture, built in the form of a cross, on a plan similar to that of the church of Wolfendal at Columbo. It appears to be kept in good repair, contains a tolerable organ, and is one of the most respectable places of public worship now extant in the island. Like all the other churches, the body of it is furnished with chairs instead of pews or fixed benches, in order that it may be the more conveniently cleaned. At right angles to it are situate the commodious mansion of the commandant, and other public buildings employed as offices for the purposes of government. The third side is composed of comfortable houses rented from the Dutch by English officers: and the fourth, which contains the gate, is made up of barracks for private soldiers. The only other street within the fort runs parallel to the back of the west side of the square: being more obscure, it is inhabited by mechanics, and the lower orders of the community. Some large buildings, apparently designed as barracks and magazines, lie unoccupied facing the ramparts.

On the same side with the church stands an extensive and well replenished farm-yard, laid out by colonel Barbut completely in the English style. Horses, oxen, cows, sheep, goats, hogs, poultry, all attracted our admiration; and in the perfection of their different kinds are probably no where excelled. The cleanness, regularity, and high order in which all the stock appeared were extremely gratifying;

and of the success of rearing and feeding the colonel's table afforded a most ample testimony. One English cow was pointed out to us as a rare and beautiful object: but she possesses the independent spirit of her country, and has hitherto rejected the embraces of an Indian help-mate. A variety of the most uncommon singing birds were kept in the house of the commandant; and elks and spotted deer wandered tame about the streets and ramparts of the fort.

At the distance of half a mile to the eastward stands the pettah or outer-town, containing several thousand inhabitants, the greater part of whom is composed of Europeans, mixed with various darker shades, occasioned by their intercourse with natives. All the streets are of a proper breadth, one half of them running parallel to one another, and the other half intersecting them at right angles. The houses are neat and clean, and the outer walls completely white. From their pure appearance, we were impressed with an idea that they had all been white-washed on the morning in which we entered the town. But the same comfortable aspect always prevails. The principal street runs through the centre of the town, on the high road from the fort of Jaffnapatam towards Trincomallee. It is finely shaded on each side by rows of large trees, towering above the houses, which are only one story high, but raised a few steps from the ground on a paved terrace: all the roofs are covered

with red pantiles. The greater part of the verandas or porticos are supported by pillars of wood painted green: some of them, however, are formed of stone, or bricks and fine mortar. Almost all the Dutch families, which formerly resided at Trincomallee, have removed to this place, which affords them cheaper living, and more agreeable retirement. The country around is fruitful: a constant bustle pervades the daily markets; and a regular trade with the opposite coast of India affords many opportunities of improving a small fortune.

Another protestant church stands a little beyond the town, dignified by the title of St. John's. It is a coarse building in bad repair, and is set apart for the accommodation of native Christians. Close to it is one corner of an elegant and spacious garden laid out by colonel Barbut. The gravel walks, the borders and plots of flowers, the beds of vegetables, the arrangement of the bushes, and smaller fruit trees, are planned according to the English taste, while the outside of the walls is surrounded by two species of majestic palms, the characteristic trees of India. Fields of *gram*, a leguminous plant, the pulse of which is given to horses, appear here in a most flourishing condition, but at this season require to be watered daily. Green pease for the table, cabbage, carrots, turnips, and other vegetables, are equal in flavour to those of any corner of the world. The stock of the cabbage plant, in all parts of India, is as

tender as a carrot, and possesses a sweetness grateful to the palate.

The culture of the common potato of England has not yet been attended with success, either at Jaffna, or any other place in Ceylon. The failure of its production has been ascribed to the great rapidity of vegetation, which wastes the substance of the plant in stalks and leaves. In some instances the stem has grown to a considerable height, and potatos have been produced of the size of a nutmeg. But even these have rarely been seen. Notwithstanding past discouragements, it is still to be hoped that a laudable perseverance will render the cultivation of this useful article completely successful. In Bengal and Bombay it flourishes in great perfection. Sweet potatos are raised in plenty, and daily used. They are a long small root, tapering at both ends, and when well cooked are very pleasant to the taste. A small quantity of the yam likewise grows. It is a large cylindrical root, upwards of one foot in length, and four inches in diameter. It is covered with a thick, hard bark, of a black colour. The inside of some species is beautifully white, of others pale red; but the consistence is extremely dry, and unless mashed with a large proportion of butter is much inferior to the common potato.

Although the country round Jaffnapatam is flat, the scenery is rich, and the rides delightful. Fields of waving green, enriched with luxuriant groves, and enlivened by

purity of air, invite the unemployed to partake of regular exercise, and render a morning or evening excursion productive of high enjoyment. The climate resembles that of Madras in its most agreeable months; but the soil is much more fertile, and the constant verdure allays the heat, and preserves a greater uniformity throughout the year. A barren spot is no where to be seen; and a high degree of cultivation prevails for twenty-two miles to Point Pedro, the northern extremity of the island.

One day we made an excursion of three miles, in a northerly direction, through fields of rice, to Copai, where we visited the small-pox hospital, which proved the most successful of any in Ceylon, and seemed conducted with ability and attention. On that occasion we dined in an old Portuguese parsonage house, with Dr. John Arnold Stutzer, a native of Switzerland, formerly employed in the Dutch, and now in the British service.

On another day the governor paid a visit of ceremony to prince Mootto Sawmy, a candidate for the crown of Candy, who fled to Jaffnapatam for protection. He was supported there by the British government, in a style suitable to his rank: but, although enjoying all the appearance of liberty, he was guarded as a state prisoner.

The causes which came before the supreme court of judicature at this place occupied the governor and the principal members of his party upwards of one month. Two days

were dedicated to receiving petitions from poor and distressed persons, and affording them such assistance as their situations required.

More thefts, burglaries, and murders, are committed in the district of Jaffnapatam than in any other equally extensive province in Ceylon. Many instances have occurred of the flap of men's ears being cut open, and their ear-rings carried off during their sleep. Notwithstanding the prevalence of this practice, the inhabitants continue to lie all night with their ornaments about their persons, exposed in the *verandas:* and even when they retire within the house they never shut the doors or windows.

All the native inhabitants of Jaffnapatam are included under the description of Malabars. About one half of them are Hindoos, or followers of Brahma: the other half are nominal Christians, with a small proportion of Mahometans.

This is the only district of Ceylon the revenue of which exceeds its expenses. That circumstance may be attributed chiefly to the flourishing state of agriculture, and the smallness of the military force which is required to keep possession of the territories. Tobacco, which is cultivated here in large quantities, proves one of the most valuable sources of revenue. It is accounted of an excellent quality, and exported to the coast of Coromandel, where an independent nabob sometimes contracts with our government for a monopoly of the trade.

Two other principal articles of export-commerce are the timber of the palmyra tree, and chanque shells. The former is used as rafters in house-building. The latter are sent to Bengal, where the Hindoos cut them into bangles, or bracelets, and employ them entire in their funeral ceremonies.

Within the province of Jaffnapatam, which does not comprehend one fourth part of the coast of Ceylon, but exceeds the population of any of the other districts, stand the remains of thirty-two Portuguese churches; and the Romish religion is still celebrated in a few modern chapels. In the neighbourhood of the town are several places of Hindoo worship; but only of a humble and recent construction. Every sect now enjoys the most perfect toleration: and no disputes are ever heard on the subject of religion.

On the 20th of November I accompanied the registrar of the supreme court of judicature to a Hindoo temple, to witness the administration of an oath to some natives of Jaffnapatam. The scene pitched upon for the ceremony was the outer pandal, or porch of the pagoda. The people were summoned to appear as evidences in a criminal prosecution. Each person brought with him one relation, (father, brother, or child). The officiating brahmin gave, both to the witness and to the relation, a small quantity of consecrated ashes, which they rubbed between their hands, upon

their forehead, chest, and arms. The relation then stretched himself on the floor, with his face touching the ground. The person sworn repeated the words of the obligation, and stepped over him. If after this ceremony they should be guilty of perjury, they believe that some calamity will befall either themselves or their relation. They are generally called upon, by the adverse party, to produce the person who is most dear to them, which they sometimes do with visible reluctance: but the ceremony is so affecting and impressive, that they seldom go through it without a determination to speak the truth.

On the 9th of December, in consequence of preparations going forward for an expedition to Egypt, the governor set out from Jaffnapatam on his way to Trincomallee, to accelerate the dispatch of business at that port. Afterwards he proceeded in a frigate to Point de Galle, and thence by land to Columbo, where he arrived on the 4th of January 1801, after an absence of six months and fourteen days.

The remainder of the party, which was left at Jaffnapatam, divided. The larger division went direct by sea, through the gulph of Manaar, to Columbo. The smaller, consisting of three persons, of whom I was one, preferred the fatigue and difficulties of a land-journey to the uncomfortable confinement of a small vessel. We bade adieu to the hospitable garrison of Jaffnapatam on the 10th of

December. The usual route in travelling towards the south crosses the arm of the sea directly under the walls of the fort, and leads by Calamony and Coundamony. But being favoured with the use of a comfortable pleasure-boat, we returned by the way in which we came to Jaffnapatam, sailing up the strait in the direction of Poonereen, and saving a circuitous land-journey of twenty-six miles, while the course we took amounts only to fifteen. After landing, however, we had to perform a long walk through paddee fields, overflowed with water, to the little fortress of Poonereen; and were followed by our palanquins, and bearers. Lieutenant Rochead of the Madras native infantry, and lieutenant Nagel of the Dutch service, accompanied us hither, where the former, in the true style of Indian hospitality, regaled us with a sumptuous entertainment. At twelve o'clock at night mutual leave was taken, and the wind being then fair the two officers sailed on their return to Jaffnapatam, in the pleasure-boat. We spent the night in our palanquins, securely stationed within the walls of Poonereen.

Next day we travelled a tedious journey of twenty-one miles, through a country completely under water. The north-east monsoon, which then prevailed, spreads heavy rains over the whole island: but they fall in greatest quantities in those provinces which are most exposed to the violence of the periodical wind. The force of the contrary

monsoon being spent before it reaches the northern, and now flooded territories, they enjoy an unclouded sky, and rarely experience a shower while the south-west wind blows.

The bearers were frequently obliged to place the body, instead of the pole of the palanquin, sometimes on their heads, at other times on their shoulders, to prevent its immersion in the water: and as in many places it was with difficulty that they traced the road, our travelling at this season was not unaccompanied with danger. The scenery around looked extravagantly wild. Some openings of the country were completely cleared of wood; and over others trees were but thinly scattered. At Pulveracotta, where we spent the remainder of the day, we found a sufficient number of bungaloes to afford all the party shelter, and felt very comfortable in enjoying a transient respite from the prosecution of a watery journey.

The following day we proceeded eighteen miles to Ilpacadua, a stage similar to the former. On the 13th we breakfasted at Vertitivoe, and about two o'clock P. M. landed on the island of Manaar. The waters had risen so much, that at this time the part of the channel which we were obliged to cross in a boat exceeded one mile in breadth. We spent the remainder of this day, and the whole of the following, with the commandant of Manaar.

As great part of the road which we had still to travel

was overflowed with water, and reported to be impassable. Mr. Farrell and I were persuaded to hire a small vessel, and proceed from this place to Calpenteen by sea. Our fellow-traveller captain Cotgrave, having duties to perform in the engineer department, in this corner, found it necessary to remain here and at Aripo some weeks. We embarked with our palanquins and bearers, and got under weigh about ten o'clock A. M. on the 15th; but owing to the ignorance of the navigators, who frequently ran the vessel upon sand-banks, several hours elapsed before we got out of the strait. As often as the vessel struck the ground the crew jumped over-board, and continued wading in the water until the bark fairly floated. From the mouth of the strait we sailed with a gentle breeze in two hours to Aripo, where we landed for the night. As the day would not have served to carry us to Calpenteen, it was thought more prudent and agreeable to defer the prosecution of the voyage until next morning. We visited the Portuguese priest at the chapel in the village; and in his house our dinner was prepared. He offered us a glass of English beer, the only liquor which he possessed: but as we knew his stock was small we declined it, made him partake of our Madeira, and on our departure insisted on his accepting a few bottles for his own use. He lives, however, in perfect simplicity, and seems independent of all those articles which are generally accounted luxuries. We slept at the choultry close to the fort in our palanquins;

embarked again at day-light; sailed from Aripo at six o'clock in the morning, and arrived at Calpenteen at three in the afternoon. Here is an excellent wharf, on which we landed, and walked to the house of the commandant, which lies about four hundred yards distant from the fort. Captain and Mrs. Driberg, both natives of Holland, received us with great hospitality. The former is an indefatigable sportsman, famed for his success in shooting elephants, which he kills for the sake of their tusks. The latter is an accomplished woman, surrounded by a large family of delightful children.

The peninsula of Calpenteen is a neck of land which extends about sixty miles along the coast, and during the north-east monsoon becomes an island. The ground is level, the soil sandy, covered with cocoa-nut trees, which yield great part of the food of the inhabitants; the adjacent country is beautiful, abounding in rich foliage. Sailing close to the shore, we discerned the huts of the natives amidst the groves, men climbing the tall stems of the cocoas, and throwing down the nuts. The opposite coast of Ceylon, and little intervening islands, present a charming appearance: fine trees, resembling many of those in England, overhang the water, and a variety of birds hover and sing among their branches.

Near to the mansion of the commanding officer stand several other excellent houses fronting the sea. A large

native village and many detached cottages are interspersed among the trees. The inhabitants are pretty numerous, and carry on a small trade by exporting salted fish and dried fish roes to Columbo, and bringing back rice in return. At this place are raised excellent mangoes, and pomegranates; and wild honey may be purchased of a very superior quality. It is in a liquid state, of the consistence of oil, and is preserved in pots, or bottles, with a few grains of rice in the husk floating on the top. The fort of Calpenteen is similar in form to that of Manaar, being about three hundred feet square, and having four bastions, one at each angle. At present no guns are mounted: those which it formerly possessed were removed soon after the island surrendered to the British arms. Within the fort is a square of houses, which is chiefly occupied as barracks for two companies of invalid Malays, who compose the garrison. Over one of the barracks is a room fitted out as a chapel, where divine service was regularly performed during the Dutch government.

At this place were seen some large canoes, fifty feet in length, and five feet in breadth, formed entirely of one tree. The rough trunks are floated over from the main of Ceylon, and hollowed out and dressed at Calpenteen. In vessels of that sort the fishermen often perform a voyage to Columbo. Quantities of wood are sent from this part of the island to the coast of Coromandel. The vessels which convey it are

called *kattamarans*, but are not exactly similar to the machines of that name used in the surf at Madras. Three logs of wood are fastened together in the form of a triangle, and the cargo is piled upon it in corresponding directions. On this a mast and sail are raised, and the navigators pursue their voyage out of sight of land in fearless security. The kattamarans at Madras are formed of two logs of wood laid parallel to one another, and bound together with ropes. Two men sit upon one, and manage it with short paddles. A wave often sweeps them off from their seat, but they retain possession of their oars, and recover their position with great celerity. These vehicles are used for sending out dispatches to ships in the road when no boat could live in the tremendous surf which dashes upon that shore. They likewise attend upon the boats which carry passengers, to lend their assistance in case of accidents.

At Calpenteen is found a great variety of curious insects, a large collection of which, preserved by Mrs. Driberg, was sent to England. Land-turtles abound. Cocoa-nuts are sold at the rate of one for a farthing.

The country lying between Aripo and Putlam is as wild, barren, and uncultivated as any tract on the coast of Ceylon: yet, from the circumstance of its comprehending the scene of a pearl fishery, it yields a greater revenue to government than other more fertile districts. Notwithstanding its sterility, it offers many fine subjects for landscape painting.

equal in beauty, richness, and variety to any that a flat country can afford. Between Calavel and Pomparipo are scattered many majestic trees of a size surpassing those that are generally met with. Each side of the high road (or travelling foot-path) is lined with impervious woods, the undisturbed abodes of wild and ferocious animals. Elephants wander over the country in mighty herds, leaving every where behind them conspicuous traces of their progress. Chetas, deer, hares, pea-fowls, with many other species of game, and swarms of reptiles, find shelter in those forests. But notwithstanding the number of formidable animals which infest the road, the occurrence of an accident is extremely rare. In the dry season I have travelled through this district unguarded in full security, and without any symptom of inconvenience; and during a residence of five years on the island, never heard a single instance of a human being suffering molestation, or injury. The elephant possesses so much timidity, that it only ventures forth into the open plains during the darkness of the night; and even then it flies from the appearance of a flame, or from the sound of the human voice.

The country between Marundavelly and Carative is uncommonly wild, presenting prospects more than usually extensive. The rugged path sometimes runs along the edges of lofty precipices. The ground below exhibits immense mounds of red sand mixed with clay, and deep hollows

adorned with mouldering trees. The dry soil is covered with plants of the most lively verdure; and the surrounding hills appear to form parts of one boundless wood.

Putlam is one of the largest and most commercial of the native villages in Ceylon. It is a mart for all the productions of the Candian dominions, and the manufactures of the coast of Coromandel. These articles are there bartered for each other; and the trade is carried on chiefly by moor-men, or natives converted to the Mahometan faith. The Candians bring down areka nuts, cardamums, black pepper, and coffee, which they exchange for calicos, muslins, salt, and dried fish. A few hundred yards from the village is erected a square turf fort with four bastions, and opposite to it a large stone house occupied by the commanding officer. This post and Calpenteen are sometimes placed under one commandant, who resides partly at both stations, and sits as president of the provincial court.

Great quantities of common oysters lie in beds so close to the beach, that they are gathered with facility by a person standing on dry land. The sand of the shore is covered with a variety of very small and beautiful shells.

The country about Putlam being flat and low, is periodically inundated by the sea to a considerable distance inland. This circumstance affords the natives an opportunity of making an extensive collection of salt, which is formed in the plains by the action of the sun's rays, and gathered

in the same manner as Mr. Orr (in the second volume of this work) has described the operations performed in the province of Mahagam.

We now continued our route by land along the east side of the peninsula of Calpenteen. But a more common line of travelling is to cross over the strait to Carative, and thence proceed on the western coast of the main island. Having left the commandant's house at Calpenteen at nine o'clock in the morning of the seventeenth, we reached Navicarry at three in the afternoon, and rested there during the remainder of the day.

On the 18th we set out from Navicarry at six o'clock in the morning: at eleven A. M. stoped at Andipany: left it at one o'clock P. M. and arrived at half past six in the evening in the house of Mr. Keuneman, commandant of Chilauw. There a party of Dutch gentlemen were seated, enjoying the fumes of tobacco; and an inhabited mansion once more afforded us a seasonable refreshment. The commandant was a respectable old man, a native of Holland, who resided forty-seven years in Ceylon; and twice visited the court of Candy in an official character. His style of living was to rise at four o'clock in the morning, smoke a pipe, and drink a cup of coffee by candle-light; breakfast at seven, dine at noon, sup at seven in the evening, and retire to rest betwixt eight and nine. He held the situation of resident at Chilauw during the Dutch government:

and from the established benevolence of his character was continued in employment until his death, by a commendable liberality in the British administration.

Chilauw is situate on a peninsula formed by two branches of a large river; the northern of which is often difficult to pass, being divided by shifting sand-banks into various channels. The boats are of a pure Ceylonese construction, formed of small canoes, and logs of wood lashed together, apparently feeble and insecure. There is no barge capable of ferrying over a horse, so that when those animals are brought this way they must swim across the river. The fort is a poor construction of earth and turf, containing a few houses; but is surrounded by a very comfortable village, at the head of which stands the mansion of the resident. In the gulph of Manaar off this station a pearl fishery is occasionally carried on, of inferior importance to that of Aripo. One year lately it yielded government a revenue of forty thousand pagodas, or sixteen thousand pounds sterling. All the other revenues of the Chilauw and Putlam districts only amount to five thousand pounds sterling per annum. These arise from various sources, such as a proportion of the rice produced, natural salt pans, rent of the passes leading into the Candian territories, chanque fishery, chaia root, sea-customs, fish-rent, jewel-tax, ferry-rents, stamp duty upon cloths, licenses for gambling-houses, and arrack shops.

The country from Putlam to Chilauw is more open than

the preceding district, but only little cultivated. A lake of salt water runs along the latter part of the road twenty miles in length, and in some places three miles broad. It takes its rise from the river of Chilauw, contains abundance of fish, and is frequented by alligators and wild fowls. At this place we enter on the territories occupied by the people called Cingalese, the most original of any of the inhabitants of Ceylon, who live under the government of Great Britain.

On the 19th we visited the protestant school of Chilauw, and spent the day in the house of Mr. Keuneman. On the 20th we set out at five o'clock in the morning, after having been refreshed with coffee in the company of our venerable host, and at half past eight A. M. halted at Maravelly. As the distance is computed to be eighteen miles, our bearers travelled at the rate of five miles an hour. At eleven o'clock A. M. we left Maravelly: about half past one P. M. crossed the Kaimel, a very beautiful river, in slight canoes; and at three P. M. entered the house of the commandant of Negombo.

The coast from Chilauw to the vicinity of Negombo is flat, open, sandy, and but little cultivated. The road, however, presents a considerable number of villages, farms, and herds of cattle. Two miles north of Negombo the soil becomes a rich mould, and the face of the country puts on a most luxuriant appearance. A cocoa-nut grove commences,

through which a shaded avenue leads into the centre of a most beautiful village. The houses are clean and neatly built, separated from one another by rows of trees connected together by lofty hedges. The mansion of the commandant stands opposite to the fort, in a cool and delightful situation between the sea and the river. From the windows and the porch the light fishing boats are seen scudding along with surprising swiftness, under their large sails, at the distance of only twenty yards. Before the house are some full-grown teak trees, planted in regular rows. The utility of that species of timber is experienced in every department of the carpenter; and its durability in ship-building surpasses even the sovereign oak. It possesses, however, the disadvantage of being a heavier wood, which proves unfavourable to fast sailing.

The shape of the fort is an irregular pentagon, having four bastions, on each of which is erected a round turret. Four of the sides are equal, but the fifth is considerably smaller than the rest. The greater part of the works are constructed of sand and turf: but the gateway, a front of wall on each side of it, and a belfry, are built of stone and fine mortar. The area within is occupied by ranges of low barracks, formed of brick, and roofed with curved tiles.

A considerable number of Dutch families have fixed their residence at this place. Many of them are reduced

to great poverty: but their condition is rendered comfortable by contentment.

Fish is caught here in great abundance and variety; and large quantities are exported in a dried state. Among these, prawns and fish-roes are esteemed articles of great delicacy on the breakfast tables of the English inhabitants.

An inland navigation is carried on all the way to Columbo, a distance of twenty-four miles, by means of lakes, rivers, and canals.

In the neighbourhood of Negombo the plantations of cinnamon commence, spread over a wide space of the surrounding country, and with only a few interruptions, stretch far beyond Columbo.

In the mouth of the river of Negumbo stands a small island covered with cocoa-nut trees: thick belts of which likewise extend along the coast on each side of it. Those woods produce a pleasing effect when viewed from sea, presenting the rich foliage which decks their summits, and dark shades of green behind their naked stems.

We saw no mountains in passing along the coast from Jaffnapatam until we approached Chilauw: but from that station towards Columbo a great number appear in connected chains, in the dominions of his Candian majesty.

The parish church of Negombo, built by the Dutch government, stands within the village, but is at present unroofed and in ruins.

In the neighbourhood of this place areka nuts, betel, coffee, and black pepper, flourish in great perfection. The market wears a busy appearance, and various little branches of trade are carried on. The navigable rivers and canals, which penetrate into the heart of the island, afford every convenience for bringing down the productions of Candy, and the articles raised in the interior provinces of the British territories. The population of Negombo is considerable: and rich crops of rice are raised in extensive plains in its vicinity. The climate is meliorated by the fertility of the soil, and the frequency of refreshing showers, a luxury of no common value, and not experienced in many corners of the torrid zone. The clouds flying from both sides of the peninsula of India are arrested in their progress by the mountains of Ceylon; and their nourishing and salutary influence is thence diffused, in moderate quantities, over this south-west province of the island.

On the 21st we set out from Negombo at nine o'clock in the morning, and performing a journey of twenty-four miles at great leisure, entered the fort of Columbo at half past five o'clock in the evening.

The road commences through a deeply-shaded avenue, equal in beauty and elegance to any combination which the vegetable kingdom is capable of exhibiting; and the whole country displays the most magnificent and most luxuriant garden which a fertile imagination can picture.

The jack, the bread-fruit, the jamboo, and the cashew-tree, weave their spreading branches into an agreeable shade, amidst the stems of the areka and cocoa-nut. The black pepper and betel plants creep up the sides of the lofty trunks: coffee, cinnamon, and an immense variety of flowering shrubs, fill the intermediate spaces; and the mass of charming foliage is blended together with a degree of richness that beggars the powers of description. All the beautiful productions of the island are here concentrated in one exuberant spot: and, as Ceylon has been termed the garden of India, this province may be styled the herbarium of Ceylon.

About eleven miles from Negombo we crossed a small river on a raft, and proceeding one mile farther, halted at the *rest-house* of Jaellé. The road, in general, is bounded by rows of lofty fruit-trees, and hedges enclosing gardens: but in some places the country is open, presenting rich corn fields and meadows, enlivened with cattle, and beautified by the windings of a fertilizing stream. Wooden bridges are thrown across the rivulets: the province seems well cultivated: and the inhabitants, who are of a chesnut colour, wear an air of comfort.

The *rest-house* at Jaellé is large and well built; having been erected under the Dutch administration, as a residence for an agent of revenue. It is now only occupied by passing travellers, and persons who proceed there from Columbo on

parties of pleasure. At this place we were regaled with a feast of the most delicious fruits which India produces. These abound here in great profusion, and are sold at prices which may be still accounted moderate, although they have been tripled since the arrival of the English in the island. Pine-apples are purchased at the rate of two for three half-pence, pumplemoses *(the shaddock of the West Indies)* from threepence to fourpence a piece, oranges fourpence per dozen, *jacks* (the largest species of *artocarpus*, or bread-fruit) fourpence a piece, and all other productions of the soil at corresponding prices.

The road from Jaellé to Columbo presents the same luxuriant aspect as the former stage. Cocoas, intermixed with other trees, appear flourishing in great perfection and abundance all the way. The country becomes populous: neat houses with white walls and tiled roofs are frequently seen on each side, surrounded with numerous groups of children. The jack-fruit, a principal article of the food of the inhabitants, is said to possess an extremely nourishing and prolific quality. While nature seems here to have exerted all her powers to satisfy abundantly the wants of a savage life, she has at the same time poured forth a richness of scenery capable of affording exquisite delight to the most cultivated mind.

Nine miles from Jaellé, and three miles from Columbo, we crossed the *Calāny ganga*, a broad, deep, and rapid river.

The ferry is called the *grand pass:* and the boat which conveyed us over had a spacious deck, of dimensions sufficient to contain a coach and four horses without being unyoked. All the way from this ferry to the fort of Columbo the road is lined on each side with excellent houses, and a busy multitude is seen passing and repassing, animated with various pursuits.

CHAPTER XII.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS—TREES—FRUITS—FLOWERS—GRAIN.

ALL the trees and fruits common to Hindoostan flourish in great perfection in Ceylon; and it boasts of some productions which are not found, at least of an equal quality, in any other part of India. An exuberance of vegetation is one of its distinguishing characteristics. In the district of Columbo alone there have been enumerated upwards of three hundred species of plants. In a general sketch of the country, however, drawn by a person ignorant of the science of botany, it is impossible to exhibit any other than a very imperfect view of the treasures of the forests. But although a correct delineation of the various tribes of plants be impracticable, a rude outline of the most common and remarkable productions shall be here attempted.

The tree which holds the first rank in point of utility to the inhabitants is the cocoa-nut, or "*cocos nucifera, inermis, frondibus pinnatis: foliolis replicatis ensiformibus.*" It grows

in great fertility and abundance along almost all parts of the sea coasts; and is likewise cultivated in many of the interior districts, though not with the same success.

It is the tree, the remarkable appearance of which most forcibly strikes a stranger on his arrival in India. A bare stem, less than one foot in diameter, rises to the height of from seventy to eighty feet. It is marked with circular notches, and is of an equal thickness throughout, but bulges towards the root, where it is covered with a fibrous bark similar to oakum. Pinnated leaves, twelve feet in length, and from three to four feet in breadth, radiate from the top of the tree. These are about twelve in number, and form a circle around its summit like the spokes of a wheel. One ligneous elastic bough is the stalk and centre nerve of the leaf; and a great number of long narrow slips spring from it opposite to one another, in the manner of fern. These too have each a strong centre nerve, half the thickness of a crow's quill. Of them the natives make excellent brooms, or besoms; and when an European asks a tooth-pick, they supply him with the end of one of those fibres. The finest of them are likewise manufactured into mats, which cover the floors in the houses of the higher ranks of people.

The nuts grow in clusters at the top of the tree, amongst the leaves: and one tree produces from two to three dozen. The nut, when pulled from the tree, is nearly

of the size of a man's head, being covered with a tough and fibrous husk, about an inch in thickness. This husk is easily stripped off after an incision is made with a knife, and the nut is then reduced to the size of an ostrich's egg, or an eighteen-pound cannon ball. The inside of the shell is lined all round with a pure white kernel about half an inch in thickness, and the intermediate hollow space is filled with an English pint of a sweet delicious water, which supplies the Indians with a most grateful beverage. This is only found in perfection when the nuts are young, at which time the substance of the kernel is soft, but as it attains maturity it becomes hard and absorbs the water.

The fibrous husks are wrought into cordage, which is used in all ships belonging to India, and in many of those which trade thither from England, and other parts of Europe. Cables of this manufacture are more buoyant and elastic than those made of hemp, and never suffer from long immersion in salt water. They are, however, more bulky, cannot be coiled in so small a compass, and are apt to be injured by exposure to rain. Those husks which are not manufactured into cordage are used as fuel.

There are several varieties of the cocoa-nut tree in Ceylon, in one of which the husk of the nut is of a bright yellow colour: in the others it is of a pea-green. These trees flourish more luxuriantly, and attain a greater height in that island, than in any province of Hindoostan. They

are chiefly valued on account of the kernel of the nut, but likewise serve many other useful purposes. The juice pressed from the kernel after it is grated is a principal ingredient in *malakatanni* and all the Cingalese curries: and the refuse, or dry substance which remains, affords excellent food for poultry and hogs.

These kernels supply all India with lamp-oil of the finest quality. After being separated from the shells, they are cut in quarters, and dried in the sun; and the oil is expressed from them in mills or mortars, which are driven by bullocks like a threshing machine, or the capstan of a ship. This oil is used by the natives in anointing their bodies, and is sometimes put into curry as a substitute for butter. Ladles for the purposes of cooking are made of one end of the shell, which has a stick passed through a hole in it as a handle.

At the top of the tree grows a shoot or pith, two feet in length and eight inches in diameter, of a consistence similar to that of a turnip, which furnishes an excellent culinary vegetable, commonly called cocoa-nut cabbage. The cutting off of this shoot proves the destruction of the tree, on which account it is in general only used when the trees are of necessity felled for other purposes.

Arrack is distilled in large quantities from *toddy* or palm wine, drawn from buds in the top of the tree. A pot sufficient to hold two quarts is fixed to a shoot, where an incision

is made in the evening, and is brought down full at sun-rise in the morning. At that period of the day *toddy* is considered as a cooling and extremely wholesome beverage, and operates on some constitutions as a gentle cathartic. But after it has felt the influence of the sun's rays it begins to ferment, and becomes as apt to intoxicate as real wine. Coarse sugar and vinegar are made from this liquor. It is also used by bakers as yeast. The trees from which toddy is drawn produce little or no fruit; as by that process germination is stopped and the nuts destroyed in embryo.

The native Ceylonese climb these tall trees with great expertness and agility, commonly without any extraneous assistance to facilitate their progress. The drawer of toddy ties a pot and knife round his waist, embraces the tree with his hands and feet, stretches forward the former, and drawing up the latter, ascends quickly to the summit by a kind of measured steps.

The filaments which surround the bottom of the stem are manufactured into a durable sackcloth called *gunny*, which is used in making bags for transporting grain and other articles of commerce. The wood of the trunk is porous, spongy, and prone to decay. It is not therefore esteemed of any value where hard timber so much abounds, but is occasionally used for pillars in the erection of temporary sheds. The cocoa-nut leaves are the principal materials used in building huts and *bungaloes*, of which they often

form both the walls and roof. The same leaves when dry are made into torches for the benefit of travellers by night; and in their fresh state they afford a most favourite food for elephants.

The next most useful of the palms in Ceylon, is that commonly known by the name of the palmyra tree: "*borassus, flabelliformis, frondibus palmatis plicatis cucullatis, stipitibus serratis.*" Its manner of growth is similar to that of the cocoa-nut. Its bare stem attains nearly the same height, but is of a stronger and harder timber, and grows more uniformly perpendicular. The leaf is shorter, and of a different shape, having the form of a spread-out fan, divided into slips, with a long foot stalk. It is of a substance as hard as parchment, but of a thicker texture; and is used over all India for writing upon with the *stylus*, and for making the books of the natives. The leaves are likewise used in constructing and thatching houses, but do not answer so well as those of the cocoa-nut. They are, however, formed into very excellent fans and umbrellas. The fruit is of the size of a twelve-pound cannon shot, almost round, of a soft pulpy consistence, delicious fragrance, and black colour, containing within it from one to three nuts, of the shape of a common hazel nut, and of the size of a walnut. The wood of this tree is hard and durable, and is never injured by white ants. It is much used in the build-

ing of boats, and in forming rafters, doors, and windows, or Venetian blinds, in the construction of houses.

Palmyra trees are to be seen in all parts of the island, but are most common in the northern provinces. In the district of Jaffnapatam they abound so much that their sweet fruit, called in the Malabar language *panningai*, forms a principal article of the food of the poorer classes of the inhabitants. The pulp is separated from the nuts, or seeds, baked into cakes, and dried in the sun. These become hard and red, and are eaten with coarse sugar, in the same manner that the Cingalese eat the kernel of the cocoa-nut, and not unfrequently used as a relish to rice, when no other seasoning can be procured.

The nuts are collected together, and buried in heaps below ground. When dug up after the space of three months, the young shoots, called *kallangu*, supply the inhabitants with another nourishing aliment. In size, colour, and shape, they resemble a parsnip, and taste like a cold potato. The *kallangu* has a loose outer skin or covering, and under it a stringy adhesive coat, similar to that which surrounds the core of the sugar cane. The tapering point grows upwards, and contains within it a hard shoot, of the thickness of a straw, ready to burst into leaves. In its fresh state it continues good for two months, and when well dried in sun-shine it keeps in preservation for a whole year. The

natives of Ceylon relish it much as an article of food, and eat it boiled. Large quantities of it, both fresh and dried, are sent from Jaffnapatam to Columbo, where it meets with a ready and constant sale.

The *toddy* drawn from the palmyra tree makes better arrack than that from the cocoa: and both it and the pulp of the fruit produce sugar, which is exported to various parts of the island, and the neighbouring peninsula. This sugar, formed by a simple process, is less refined, and of a darker colour than any which is imported into Britain. When put on board of ship, or exposed in the market for sale, it is merely packed in the leaves of the palm, from the juices of which it derives its origin.

The areca tree, "*cathecu frond. pinnatis; foliolis replicatis, oppositis præmorsis,*" is the smallest of the palms, grows perfectly straight, and never deviates in the least from an erect position. The stem is not more than thirteen inches in circumference, and attains to the height of sixty feet. The leaves shoot out from the top of the tree, and are much smaller than those of the cocoa, which, in shape, they considerably resemble. The nuts grow in clusters at the bottom of the leaves, are of an oval shape, in size somewhat larger than a nutmeg, and of a similar consistence, the inside of the kernel being solid, and of a white colour, streaked with red.

These nuts are in general use as a luxury over all India,

and form a great article of revenue and commerce in Ceylon. Large plantations of the tree are cultivated by the natives in the British settlements; and great quantities of the nuts are brought from the centre of the Candian territories, and shipped from our ports.

One of these trees yields from 300 to 1000 nuts, and some produce 1500. " They bear," says Knox, " but once in the year generally, but commonly there are green nuts enough to eat all the year long. The leaves fall off every year, and the skin upon which they grow, with them. These skins grow upon the body of the tree, and the leaves grow out of them. They also clap about the buds or blossoms which bear the nuts, and as the buds swell, so this *skin-cover* gives way to them, till at length it falls quite off with the great leaf on it. It is somewhat like leather, and of great use to the country people. It serves them instead of basons to eat their rice in, and when they go a journey to tie up their provisions: for in these skins or leaves they can tie up any liquid substance, as oil or water, doubling it in the middle, and rolling it in the two sides, almost like a purse. Ordinarily they are about two feet in length, and a foot and a half in breadth. In this country there are no inns, therefore when people travel, the manner is, to carry ready dressed what provisions they can, made up in these leaves. The trees within have only a kind of pith, and split easily from one end to the other; the wood is hard and

very strong: it is used as laths for houses, and also as rails instead of hedges. Money is not very plentiful in this land, but by means of these nuts, which are a great commodity to carry to the coast of Coromandel, the inhabitants furnish themselves with all things they want. The common price of nuts, when there is a trade, as there was when I came first on this land, is 20,000 for one dollar; but now (anno 1681) they lie and grow, or rot on the ground under the trees."

A fourth species of the palm is the *kettule* of the Cingalese, *caryota urens*, or *jaggree* tree, so called from its fertility in the production of sugar. In the *Thesaurus Zeylanicus* it is described as "*palma Indica, vinifera, fructibus urentibus, folio adianthi saccharum proebens.*" In its general appearance it resembles the cocoa-nut tree, with the addition of blossom and clusters of fruit hanging down in perpendicular strings, three or four feet long from the bottom of the leaves, all round the top of the stem. The leaves are not smooth, but serrated. The pith of this tree, when dried and granulated, is well known by the name of sago. The fruit contains two kernels, and does not exceed the size of a common cherry.

The *talipot* tree, the largest of the palms, has been already mentioned in the description of Batticaloe in the eighth chapter of this volume, where a print of it is given.

“This tree,” says Knox, “is as big and tall as a ship’s mast, and very streight bearing only leaves: which are of great use and benefit to the inhabitants: one single leaf being so broad and large, that it will cover fifteen or twenty men, and keep them dry when it rains. The leaf being dried is very strong and limber, and most wonderfully made for men’s convenience to carry along with them; for tho’ this leaf be thus broad when it is open, yet it folds close like a lady’s fan, and then it is no bigger than a man’s arm, and extremely light. The people cut them into pieces and carry them in their hands. The whole leaf spread out is round almost like a circle, but the pieces cut for use are nearly like unto a triangle. They lay them upon their heads, as they travel, with the peaked end foremost, which is convenient to make their way thro’ the boughs and thickets. When the sun is vehement they use them to shade themselves from the heat. All soldiers carry them; for besides the benefit of keeping them dry in case it rain upon the march, these leaves make their tents to lie under in the night.”—“The tree bears no fruit until the last year of its life, and then it comes out on the top, and spreads abroad in great branches, all full first of yellow blossoms, most lovely and beautiful to behold, but of a very strong smell: then it comes to a fruit round and very hard, as big as our largest cherries, but good only for seed to set; and tho’ this tree bears but once, it makes amends, bearing such great

abundance, that one tree yields seed enough for a country. If these trees stand near any houses, the smell of the blossom so much annoys the inhabitants, that they regarding not the seed, forthwith cut them down. The stem has within it a pith only, which is very good to eat, if the tree be cut down before it runs to seed. It is beaten to flower in mortars, and baked into cakes; which taste much like wheat bread. It serves instead of corn before the harvest is ripe."

The trees which next claim attention on account of their utility to the inhabitants, are two species of the bread-fruit, one which contains seeds, and another in which no seeds are found.

The first of these, the more valuable of the two in Ceylon, is called the *jack*-tree, or "*artocarpus integrifolia, fructu seminifero:* having leaves entire, with seeds in the fruit." It grows after the manner of a chesnut-tree, shooting forth branches in all directions, and flourishes in great luxuriance in the southern parts of the island, often exceeding the bulk and height of the largest oak. Its size, however, is more limited in the sultry plains of Hindoostan. The leaves are small, oval, entire, dark green and smooth on the upper surface, but paler beneath. They are much used at Columbo in feeding sheep, and are eaten by them with great relish. The fruit is first borne on the branches, then on the trunk, and finally on the roots. It is of an oval shape, of the size

of a man's body, two feet in length, as much in circumference, fifty pounds in weight. It is covered with a thick, green coat, of a scaly appearance, marked with hexagonal divisions, something in the style of the skin of the pine-apple. Within, it contains a great number of seeds, each enclosed in a fleshy substance of the size and form of a green fig. This substance is of a yellow colour, of a rich and delicious taste, and forms a great article of food in Ceylon. The seed is twice the size of an almond, of the form of a crescent, but blunt at both ends. It is farinaceous like the chesnut, and, when roasted, tastes like a potato. As the fruit ripens, the natives cover it with mats, worked into the form of bags, to preserve it from the attacks of birds. In its unripe state they eat the whole, after the external coat is taken off, cutting it down in slices like a stock of cabbage, and making it into an excellent curry, which tastes like potatos chopped with milk.

Many Europeans are prejudiced against this fruit, and do not eat it on account of a nauseous smell, which it emits on its first being opened. None of that remains when it is prepared for the table. The fleshy coats separated from the seeds are dipped into a large glass of salt and water, which increases their delicious flavour.

The wood of the tree is used in making dining-tables, and other articles of household furniture. It receives a stain which resembles mahogany, but the wood is softer

and of a coarser grain. Chips of the root yield a yellow dye.

The other species of the bread-fruit tree known in Ceylon is "*artocarpus incisa, fructu apyreno*, having its leaves gashed, and fruit without seeds." The two species are completely different, not more distinguished from one another by the structure of the fruit than the form of the leaves. This seedless variety is the real bread-fruit, which is so much valued in Otaheite and other islands of the south sea: but not being wanted in Ceylon as an article of food, its culture is there little attended to, and it does not abound in any degree equal to the *jack*, which is so much the greater favourite of the inhabitants.

The bread-fruit tree is about the size of a common oak, has a great number of branches spreading almost horizontally, and is rendered extremely elegant by the picturesque appearance of its leaves. These are scattered all over it, but not crowded on one another, and placed at such distances that the form of each is distinctly seen. They are a foot and a half in length, eleven inches wide, deeply indented like those of the vine, and divided into seven or nine lobes, in each of which is a strong nerve. The fruit grows from twigs, which rise perpendicularly from the horizontal branches. It is of an oval shape, from nine to eleven inches long, and nearly as much in circumference, covered with a pale green reticulated coat, of a nature similar to

that of the *jack*. It contains no seeds, but has a fibrous and spongy core, about an inch in diameter, running longitudinally through it. The rest of the fruit is as solid as a turnip. When simply boiled without any seasoning, it is tasteless and insipid. In the usual method of cooking it for the use of the English inhabitants, it is first boiled, then toasted: the outer coat being taken off, a thick slice is cut all round, which is mashed with a large proportion of butter, and tastes like potatos, but is by no means preferable to them. The remaining core, which is not fit to be eaten, is thrown away. In the year 1791, when our government bestowed so much pains in transplanting the bread-fruit tree from Otaheite to the West Indies, they were unacquainted with its being an indigenous production of Ceylon, whence it might have been more easily transported.

The cocoa-nut, palmyra, and *jack*, may be esteemed the staff of life in Ceylon, and a certain resource against the failure of more precarious sustenance. The man who plants any one of these useful trees confers a lasting benefit on himself, and hands down to posterity more certain riches than can be procured, in less genial climates, by a life of the most toilsome labour. When the seeds or slips are once put into the ground, they require no cultivation, no pruning, no kind of attention, but spontaneously advance to maturity, and yield a regular and never-failing produce.

The BANYAN, Indian fig, *allamarum*, or *ficus Indica*,

"*foliis lanceolatis integerrimis petiolatis, pedunculis aggregatis, ramis radicantibus,*" is a tree which attracts particular notice on account of one distinguishing and remarkable property. Its horizontal branches naturally extend to a great distance from the parent stem, and being unable to support their own ponderous weight, as they shoot forward, fibrous roots drop perpendicularly from them, and after touching the ground, swell to the size of massy pillars, and bear up the loaded boughs with the utmost firmness. These stems are smooth columns, covered with bark of a silver colour, and put forth no shoots. When they first leave the tree they are of a brownish hue, as flexible as hemp, and wave in the air like ropes. After entering the earth, they become stationary, and are to be found about the same tree of various ages, some measuring less than three inches, others upwards of eleven feet in circumference. As they at first draw their nourishment from the tree, it is probable that they afterwards return the favour by supplying it with new juices from the bountiful earth.

The leaves are plain, entire, smooth edged, neither heart-shaped nor ending in a pointed extremity. A full-grown leaf is five inches long, three and a half broad, and has a foot stalk upwards of one inch in length. They grow alternately on each side of the branches, but not opposite to one another. The fruit is of the size of a small cherry, of a deep scarlet colour, and has a bright yellow circular

spot round that part of it which touches the tree. The flower, like that of all other figs, is contained within the fruit, the substance of which consists of a great number of seeds of a diminutive size. These figs grow without any stalks, adhering closely, in alternate positions, all around the smaller branches. They afford food for monkeys, and a variety of the feathered race; but are not sweet to the taste, and are scarcely ever eaten by man. The seeds are of such a nature that they pass through birds unhurt, perhaps become more fit for vegetation than before; and by these means the trees are scattered over all India and the eastern islands, and often placed in curious situations.

Some writers, in describing this tree, have confounded its qualities with those of the *ficus religiosa*, attributing to it the property of dropping roots from the one, and clothing it with the heart-shaped leaves of the other. An error still more palpable has been committed in asserting that it bears no fruit.

The appearance of the Indian fig-tree is striking, romantic, and uncommon. The sketch, represented in the plate, is a faithful delineation made in the garden of Mr. John Shamier, Armenian merchant at Madras, and is chosen here for the sake of illustration, as a better specimen than any which I met with in Ceylon. Round this tree is a circle of low brick-work, ninety feet in diameter. The parent trunk (in the centre of the plate) measures twenty-eight feet

Banyan Tree

in circumference, and is of a light brown colour. The tree has no appearance of decay, but seems flourishing, in the prime of life, in full vigour. Thirty-seven descended stems are firmly rooted in the ground, and a considerable number of small fibres appear like loose ropes waving in the wind. Of the former some measure only two inches and a half, others eleven feet in circumference; and they have descended from the height of from thirty to fifty feet. Immediately on the fibres reaching the ground the gardener surrounds them with a hillock of earth, which at once gives them firmness, and assists their growth.

The only thing to be regretted in the situation of this tree, is that other trees surround it so closely that it cannot be seen perfectly at one view. Four avenues lead to it in the form of a cross, and there is plenty of room to walk round it in all directions; but when the whole of the tree can be seen the spectator is too near to make a full drawing of it, or to enjoy completely the magnificence which it exhibits.

That amiable couple lord and lady William Bentinck, soon after their arrival at Madras in 1803, visited this tree, and were entertained by the Armenian proprietor at an elegant breakfast under its boughs.

So little does curiosity occupy the minds of adventurers in the torrid zone, that there are many respectable gentlemen who have lived from twenty to thirty years at Madras

and never seen this tree, although it does not lie above one furlong from the high road, and is situate within a few miles of their villas.

Milton's description of the Indian fig-tree, in the ninth book of Paradise Lost, although in some particulars incorrect, is not unworthy of being transcribed. Our first parents, after having discovered their nakedness, are represented searching, by Adam's advice, for broad, smooth leaves, which they might sow together to answer the purpose of aprons.

> " So counsel'd he, and both together went
> Into the thickest wood, there soon they chose
> The fig-tree, not that kind for fruit renown'd,
> But such as at this day to Indians known
> In Malabar or Decan spreads her arms
> Branching so broad and long, that in the ground
> The bended twigs take root, and daughters grow
> About the mother-tree, a pillar'd shade
> High overarch'd, and echoing walks between;
> There oft the Indian herdsman shunning heat
> Shelters in cool, and tends his pasturing herds
> At loop-holes cut through thickest shade: those leaves
> They gather'd, broad as Amazonian targe,
> And with what skill they had, together sow'd,
> To gird their waste."

The FICUS RELIGIOSA, "*foliis cordatis oblongis integerrimis acuminatissimis,*" is held in great veneration both in Ceylon and on the continent of India. In the Cingalese language it is called *bogaha*, or the tree of Buddha, and

in Malabar *arisamarum*. It drops no fibrous roots from its spreading boughs, but far surpasses the *banyan* in elegance and gracefulness of form, grows to a very large size, has a smooth bark, and is, perhaps, the most completely beautiful of all the trees which adorn the wide garden of nature. The leaves are particularly handsome, being exactly of the form of a heart, and having a long pointed extremity, and a long foot stalk. When full grown, they measure upwards of six inches in breadth at the broadest part, and eight in length, including the tapering point, which measures two inches. The fruit grows without stalks, in the same manner as that of the *ficus Indica*, adhering to the smaller branches; but it is rather less in size, and does not attain when ripe so bright a red. This religious fig is accounted the most sacred of trees in India; and is held in such high estimation in the country of Candy, that the form of its leaves is only allowed to be painted on furniture employed exclusively for the gratification of the king. Specimens of both these fig-trees have been planted in the East-India company's garden in the island of St. Helena, where, although young, they appear in a flourishing condition.

Knox, speaking of the *bogaha*, says correctly, " there are many of these trees, which the inhabitants plant all the land over, and take more care of than of any other. They pave round under them like a key, sweep often under them to keep them clean; they light lamps, and set up their

images under them; and a stone table is placed under some of them to lay their sacrifices on. They set them everywhere in towns and high-ways, where any convenient places are: they serve also for shade to travellers. They also plant them in memorial of persons deceased, in the place where their bodies were burnt. It is held meritorious to plant them, which, they say, he that does, shall die within a short while after, and go to heaven. But the oldest men only who are nearest death in the course of nature, do plant them, and none else; the younger sort desiring to live a little longer in this world before they go to the other."

The *jamboo* or *eugenia malaccensis* is a handsome tree, of a conical shape, generally planted in the avenues leading to gentlemen's villas. It shoots out a great number of branches pointing upwards, but not extending to any considerable distance from the centre stem, which grows perpendicular to the height of forty or fifty feet. The leaf is of an oblong oval shape, pointed at both ends, deep green, fifteen inches in length, and four and a half in breadth at the middle. The blossom is of a bright pink colour, and the ground, for a considerable space round the tree, is often covered with its numerous stamina. The fruit is of the size and shape of a jargonelle pear. The outer skin, which is finer than that of the most delicate apple, is of a beautiful pink colour on one side, and pure white on the other. One species is dark red all over. The inside is white, of a con-

sistence between that of an apple and peach, and contains a kernel about the size of the stone of a plum. It is a light fruit, perfectly wholesome and pleasant to the taste, but not highly flavoured. The *jamboo Malacca*, or *rose apple*, which belongs to the same genus, is a smaller but more beautiful fruit. It is perfectly round, pale yellow on one side, red on the other, of a smooth soft skin, possessing the smell and flavour of a rose, and containing a round kernel of the size of a musket bullet. It is rare in Ceylon, and not indigenous.

The *terminalia kattapa*, or Ceylon almond, is the produce of a tree which grows to as large a size as the tallest oak, and has much of the same appearance. The shell is of a rough outside, all of one piece; the kernel is of the size of an almond, and tastes like a filbert. It does not split into two, but is folded up like a rose bud, and opens continuous, as if it were all in one leaf. Two of these trees, of a large size, stand in the garden belonging to government within the fort of Columbo, and appear conspicuous objects in a view of the place.

The *portia*, *tulip-tree*, or *hibiscus populneus*, "*foliis cordatis integerrimis, caule arboreo; calyce exteriore indiviso;*" is one of the most common trees, not only in Ceylon, but over all India. It is remarkable for the quickness of its growth, and is everywhere planted for the sake of shade. All the trees of the east are ever-green, and continually

clothed with leaves. The trunk of this tree grows perpendicularly to the height of from twelve to twenty feet, and then shoots out long tapering branches, which point upwards in all directions, and form a spreading top covered with thick foliage. The leaf is of the form of a heart about five inches in breadth, and four and a half in length. The flower is of the shape of a tulip, of a yellow colour, having a brownish spot in the inside, at the bottom of each of the five petals, one large pistil, and a great number of stamina.

The tree which yields the tamarind is noble and lofty, having wide spreading branches and small pinnated leaves, like those of the mountain ash. The fruit grows in flat pods, having the appearance of those of the laburnam. The pods are of a stringy texture, containing a number of hard seeds, surrounded by an acid pulp. The natives knead them into lumps, expose them daily for sale, and use them constantly as an ingredient in all their curries. They are preserved by their own acidity, and when mixed with water afford a refreshing beverage, which supplies a grateful relief in fevers.

The cotton tree *(bombyx ceiba)* grows perpendicularly to the height of sixty feet, and is remarkable from its branches shooting out straight and horizontal, and being always three of equal length in one plane: they are but few in number, and gradually diminish towards the top, observing the same regularity in their structure. The lesser shoots

grow flat, and are not conspicuous. The cotton is contained in pods, from four to six inches long, which hang down perpendicularly from the horizontal boughs, and burst open when ripe. A number of seeds like black pepper, but without taste, are mixed with the cotton within the pod. This cotton, on account of its shortness and brittleness, is esteemed unfit for the manufactures of the loom, but is much used in stuffing mattrasses and pillows. The wood of the tree is hard, and adapted for the purposes of the carpenter. One of these trees, at a distance, looks like the main-mast of a ship with its yards squared. Two shrubs, producing cotton of a superior quality, are cultivated in Ceylon.

Both these are seen in the plantations at Carselles, on the little island of Manaar. They are of different sizes, but resemble each other. The smaller shrub produces cotton in five months after it is sown, and only lasts one year. The larger shrub does not produce until after the age of eighteen months, and continues flourishing for the space of five years. The flower resembles that of the *hibiscus populneus*, but is of a smaller size. The form is that of a tulip, of a yellow colour, with a round spot of brownish purple in the bottom of the bell. One large pistil proceeds from the centre of the calix, surrounded by a cluster of small stamina. The leaves are small, circular, and deeply indented.

The *teak*-tree is of a stately appearance, having a large trunk growing straight to the height of seventy feet, a great

number of branches and broad leaves, which radiate in clusters from one point. On account of its extensive utility in ship-building, and every other department of the carpenter, it is justly styled "the pride of the eastern forests*." Harder, more durable, and working more kindly than oak, it bears the intense heat of the sun without splitting, resists the attacks of the sea-worm, and all other vermin. Many ships built of this wood at Bombay have been employed in carrying the teas of the India company from China to England. Some of them have continued on the water for so many years, that no person can recollect the period at which they were launched. The heaviness of the wood, however, has been thought to be, in some vessels, the cause of dull sailing. This tree flourishes extremely well in Ceylon, where large plantations of it are to be seen. It is said, by some persons, to have been introduced into the island by the Dutch; by others, it is said to be found growing wild in the woods near to Trincomallee.

The cashew-tree grows irregularly to a considerable size, and is thickly covered with plain leaves, larger than those of a pear-tree. Its small stellated blossom is beautiful, and of a pale yellow colour, streaked with pink. The apple is of a conical shape, about the size of an egg, filled with a frothy juice, of a strong astringent quality. It is held in no estimation, and is little used except by the poorest of the people.

* Marsden.

The nut grows upon the top of the apple, and in that situation gives the fruit a curious appearance. It is of the size and shape of a sheep's kidney, covered with a thick shell containing oil of a caustic quality. The natives burn the nuts until all the oil is consumed. They are then easily opened, and the kernels split into two. When, afterwards, toasted in a frying-pan, they are excellent eating, of a pleasant flavour, and lighter to the stomach than any other species of nut. They are an article of daily use in Ceylon, and extremely cheap. It is a common sight to see a poor woman sitting under a tree in the morning, burning the oil from heaps of the nuts, which she means to expose for sale through the day. Many of the cashew-trees grow spontaneously amidst the cinnamon plantations at Columbo, which they considerably overtop, and increase the picturesque appearance of that wild garden.

Maroongaye, or *moringa* (guilandina moringa), is a tree which grows to the size of a mountain-ash, with very small pinnated leaves, and a yellow blossom. Its root and bark possess the flavour and pungency of horseradish, and are used in the same manner. Several of these trees are planted along the lesser streets in the *pettah* of Columbo.

Oranges of different species are produced in great perfection and abundance. Two crops are yielded in the year, and for two months, each season, they are extremely delicious. The kind which is most plentiful is of the size of the

largest Portugal oranges, but never becomes yellow, and is of a green colour when perfectly ripe. Those of the best quality and fullest maturity acquire the tinge of a russet apple, to which is added, in some parts, a roughness of a blackish hue. One of this species is indeed sometimes seen of a yellow colour, but it is then not in health, rotten, or otherwise unfit to be eaten. A small species of the *mandarin* orange, however, is found of a deep *orange* colour and excellent flavour. The skin lies loose about it, and is peeled off at once, and the internal divisions separate easily from one another.

The *pumplemose* grows on a tree similar in appearance to that of a standing apple-tree, and often attains the size of a man's head. The shape, outer coat, and internal consistence, resemble those of an orange; but the skin is much thicker, and the juicy fibres are proportionably larger. The outer coat is of a pale yellow colour. When cut thin it is an excellent ingredient in making bitters and marmalade; and a piece of it dropped into a glass of wine gives it an agreeable flavour. The pumplemose, altogether, is one of the best and most refreshing of the eastern fruits. It consists of several species, larger and smaller, some of which are red, and others white, in the inside. The smallest of all, which is red, is accounted the most delicate. In the heart of one of the larger species, after the fruit is opened, another entire pumplemose is found, of the size of an orange, but

without an outer coat, like an egg before it acquires its hard shell. The pumplemose in the West Indies is called by the name of *shaddock*, from the captain who first carried it thither.

The *guava* is the produce of a middling sized tree, and of two sorts. One is small, round, yellow without, and red in the inside. The other is larger, oval, and white both within and without. It is of the consistence of an apple, and the whole substance of it is filled with a great number of small, round, hard seeds. The flavour of it is strong, and partakes a little of that of the strawberry.

The *papai* is the fruit of a tree *(carica papaya)*, which resembles a palm in its manner of growth, having the stem straight, thirty feet high, marked with circular inequalities, and the leaves springing from the top. These have long foot stalks, are of a soft texture, moderate size, deeply gashed and stellated. The fruit hangs in clusters from the top. It is of the form of a pear, but equal in size to a rock melon, which it resembles in its internal colour and structure. The outer skin is green and very fine, the fruit soft, wholesome, and cooling, but not richly flavoured. The hollow space in the heart of it is filled with a great number of round seeds, which are of the size and colour of grains of black pepper, and have a hot taste like cresses.

The pomegranate grows upon a shrub about the size of a large rose-bush. It is perfectly round, of the size of a

large apple, having a hard shell of red and yellow colours on opposite sides. The inside is filled with flat seeds, surrounded with a red pulp, of the size and taste of red currants, and laid in different compartments, formed by a hard, waxy substance. This fruit is esteemed particularly cooling, and is often given to afford relief in fevers.

Plantains of all kinds are produced in great luxuriance and abundance. Of them there are twelve varieties. They are the same which at Madeira and the West Indies are called bananas. The shrub grows to the height of twelve feet, and is of a curious and elegant appearance. The trunk is from six to eight inches in diameter, but in no degree ligneous, being of a vegetable consistence, not harder than a carrot. The leaves shoot out nearly from the bottom of the stem, at first rise perpendicularly, and then bend outwards. They are five or six feet in length, eight inches in breadth, having one thick centre nerve, on each side of which the texture of the leaf is thin, soft, glossy, and pliant, without any appearance of fibres. The fruit is of the form of a sausage or hogs' pudding, and of various sizes from four to twelve inches in length, and from an inch and a half to two inches in diameter. It is of different colours, red, green, gold, yellow. The last is most common. It is covered with a thick skin, which is easily peeled off; the rest of the fruit is softer than a pear, sweet and pleasant to the taste. When mashed with milk it is very delicious, and

flavours of strawberries: made into sauce, mixed with lime juice, it is not distinguishable from apples: fried with flower it makes excellent fritters. This fruit received the name of fig from the Portuguese. It grows in large bunches at the top of the stem, of forty or fifty together, in different tiers, lying close on one another. Pieces of the stem are given to wild elephants after they are captured, as a favourite article of food, which tends to sooth them. The leaf is applied to the skin by surgeons after the removal of a blister. The fruit furnishes an important part of the daily nourishment of the natives.

The *mangusteen* is not indigenous in Ceylon, and until within the last five years the tree which produces it was unknown, and is still very rare in the country. The *mango* is not plentiful, never attains the size or perfection of that of mazagon, and the growth of it is chiefly confined to the north-west coast of the island. It is a rich highly flavoured fruit, of the size and form of a peach, having a skin like an apple, and a large stone in the heart of it. Both the stone and the inside of the skin are lined with a coat of a fibrous texture: but the intermediate part of the fruit is solid and juicy, of an orange colour, often smelling like turpentine. In its green state it makes a most excellent pickle, as well as a preserve; and when ripe it yields a most delicious jelly. In cutting up a mango, a species of beetle of the size of a fly is often found within

the pulp, without any aperture discoverable by which it could have entered. The tree grows to a considerable size.

The great reed called the *bamboo*, or *arundo bambos*, flourishes extremely well. It shoots up in stools, of a considerable number from the same bottom; and the canes, which are nearly of the thickness of a man's thigh, grow to the height of from fifty to eighty feet. The leaves are small, narrow, and pointed, springing from the knots. The tree waves in the wind, presenting a very elegant feathered appearance. It is applied to the same purposes in Ceylon as in other parts of India. The pith of the young shoots, which is of a white colour, makes an excellent pickle, of as soft a consistence as beet root. Limes grow in great abundance, and are daily used in their fresh state. They are likewise often pickled, and sometimes preserved. They are divided into several sorts, smaller and larger. The leaf of one of the trees smells like essence of lemon. There are, however, no real lemons in the country. Pine-apples grow in greater plenty, and of a larger size, but not of so high a flavour, as those of Hindoostan, where the degree of heat is greater, and the quantity of rain less. They are raised without any culture, farther than sticking the plants in the ground, and are sold in many places at as low a rate as a penny apiece. Their highest price does not exceed sixpence. Water melons are in great plenty, but the rock or musk

melon is not common. The *custard* apple is of the size of a large orange, of a flat conical shape, green colour, having a soft shell, marked on the outside with raised triangles, like a fir cone, or pine cheese. The pulp in the inside is white and rich, of the taste and consistence of boiled custard, and is mixed with a great number of flat black seeds, smaller than those of a lemon. It is eaten by Europeans with a tea-spoon, but the seeds are not swallowed. The *bullock's heart*, so called from its shape and red colour, is a fruit similar to the former: but the outer coat, although reticulated, is all of one piece. The *billimbing (averrhoa bilimbi)*, or country gooseberry, in shape and colour resembles a girkin, or young cucumber, having five flat sides, and a strong acid taste. It is used in making tarts and preserves. Of the tree which produces it there are two sorts. In one the leaves are very small and pinnated: in the other they are somewhat larger, and grow promiscuously. The blossom resembles London pride.

The gorka is an acid, pulpy fruit, highly flavoured, round, and of the size of a small apple. The wood-apple which has a hard shell is common, and the contents of it when mixed with sugar are very palatable.

The coffee-tree flourishes in great luxuriance in the southern parts of the island, under the shade of the palms. It is of the same species with that which is cultivated in Arabia; and the fruit of it is not inferior to the coffee ex-

ported from Mocho. When landed in England it is seizable, if made up in parcels containing less than one hundred pounds each.

The sugar-cane thrives extremely well, but the culture of it is little attended to. It is exposed for sale in the market of Columbo, and the natives are fond of chewing it, but do not employ it in the manufacture of sugar. A small quantity of rum, however, is made from the plantations at Caltura.

Black pepper, which is the produce of a creeping plant, or vine, is likewise cultivated, but not in sufficient quantities to supply what is necessary for packing the bales of cinnamon when shipped for England. It and coffee, however, are considerable articles of commerce: and the culture of them, as well as of the sugar-cane, might be increased to any extent which government should desire. The Dutch did not encourage the growth of them, lest they should interfere with the trade of their other settlements. The English may continue the neglect for similar reasons. At the same time the low state of cultivation in these as in other articles is characteristical of the uncivilized condition of the natives, who possess no aspiring genius, and aim at no higher state of improvement.

The *betel (piper betel)* plant in appearance resembles the black pepper, and grows like ivy entwined about trees or props. The leaf is shaped like a heart, about the size

of a man's hand, dark green, thick, and aromatic. It is eaten over all India with the areca-nut, and other additions.

Tobacco is cultivated with great success, particularly in the district of Jaffnapatam. The *ricinus palma Christi,* from which castor oil is extracted, grows wild. Of the *chili, capsicum,* or Cayenne pepper, there are several species, some of which are smooth, shaped like a cone, and others round, indented like a melon. They grow on small bushes. Turmeric and ginger are both common, as are also coriander and cardamum seeds, which last are eaten as a delicacy. Maize, or Indian corn, is cultivated only in small quantities. Cucumbers are extremely plentiful, and of the best quality. As culinary vegetables in daily use the following may be enumerated; the *brinjal,* of which the egg-plant is a species, the pumpkin, the sweet potato, the onion, pulse of various sorts growing high on props, and lasting for several years, amongst which are species of the French bean; different kinds of greens, in appearance resembling spinage, garlic, white radishes, *bandekai, peegenkai, pavaca, podalunga,* cabbage, and salad, which two last are not indigeneous.

Ceylon produces many sorts of wood fit for mechanical, cabinet, and domestic purposes. Thirty-nine species of these have been collected and sent to England. The most valuable and beautiful is *calaminder,* which is extremely hard, of a dark chocolate colour, clouded like marble,

streaked with veins of black, and pale yellow, and receives a very high polish. *Cadumberi* considerably resembles it, but is of lighter colours, and inferior beauty. Other species of ebony, satin, and *nindoo* wood, are very common.

Gamboge, turpentine, lac, and other gums, are produced in large quantities, but are not employed as articles of trade.

The sensitive plant is to be seen in many of the gardens about Columbo. The *wanny rajah*, or prince of scarcity, grows wild in the shady parts of the woods. Its leaves are small, resembling black velvet, with veins like bright gold. The bastard pine, a wild tree, which grows only in sea sand, is mentioned in the tour round the island.

The *nepenthes distillatoria*, or "*bandura Zeylanica, in extremo foliorum, folliculum peniformem expansum habens*," is a curious and indecent plant, which grows wild in all parts of the cinnamon plantations at Columbo. The leaf is twelve inches in length, two in breadth. From the point of it issues a curved tendril, eight inches long, which is a continuation of the centre nerve, and at the extremity of it a cylindrical tube rises perpendicularly, six inches in height, and one and a quarter in diameter, resting its bottom on the ground, and having its top closed by a valve. This tube, whilst in the vigour of its growth, is distended by pure limpid water, distilled into it through the tendril of the leaf: but after it has passed the season of maturity, the

valve opens on a hinge, and the water runs out. Of this *folliculus* there are several varieties, one of which is of the colour of a red gooseberry; and two have a double fringe, running longitudinally on one side The plainest, and most common, which is green, is represented, but not very perfectly, in a plate in the *Thesaurus Zeylanicus*. Small stellated blossoms grow in clusters on a perpendicular stalk which rises from the heart of the plant, surrounded by a bunch of leaves. The seed is about the size of a grain of wheat, and enclosed in a similar husk. The stalk of the plant is like the branch of a willow, and runs six feet along the ground, terminating in a hard root like that of licorice, which penetrates deep into the soil, and spreads around it a great number of smaller fibres. It is found of various sizes, some of which are larger, and others smaller, than what is here described. This *lusus naturæ* possesses no medicinal quality, nor any other virtue as yet discovered: and the growth of it being confined to Ceylon and other eastern islands, it cannot be the same *nepenthes* which was sent to Helen by Thone, king of Egypt. That delicious draught was probably opium, which might then have been produced in Egypt, and certainly possesses those qualities which Homer ascribes to it.

One most delicate species of moss often attracts admiration, and flourishes in great abundance amidst the cinnamon plantations. It grows erect, to the height of

twenty inches, and appearing in thick beds together, presents various hues of the most charming green. When plucked up by the root it is three feet in length; and is used, as an elegant ornament, in decorating the walls and roofs of rooms on all grand and festive occasions. Strings of moss are drawn in diagonal lines across a white calico ceiling, and intersect one another in the manner in which a tessellated marble pavement is often laid. They are likewise hung in festoons below the cornice, and round the doors and windows.

The flowers of Ceylon are numerous, and many of them are beautiful, but only a few possess any fragrance. Those that have the strongest scent are used in the temples, and much cultivated by the natives.

Amongst those which have been described by botanists, are twenty-four kinds of convolvulus, sixteen of *ixora*, and twelve of jasmine.

The convolvulus *pes capri*, and convolvulus *turpethum*, are both common. The *ixora coccinea* "*foliis ovalibus semi-amplexicaulibus, floribus fasciculatis*," flourishes everywhere in great beauty and perfection. It is a large shrub, with leaves like myrtle. The flower is small, deep scarlet, having four petals, and a long tubula stalk. It grows in clusters of about thirty together, all radiating from one point in the form of an umbel.

One curious plant, which grows flat upon the ground,

bears two kinds of leaves, the one two inches in length and oblong, the other round, only half an inch in diameter, and growing in pairs, as if two were joined together, and folding with a hinge. Clusters of little pods are enclosed within the double leaf. They are from five to six in number, and each contains two flat seeds. Another shrub produces a very beautiful leaf, which is used for garnishing dishes at table. The greater part of the leaf is of a dark green colour; and the centre of it contains, on each side of the nerve, a rugged streak of white. In these are often discovered likenesses of human faces, and perfect resemblances of particular persons.

Ferns abound in very great variety. Sixteeen kinds of them are enumerated in the *thesaurus Zeylanicus*. But there are many species of *osmunda* which have never been described, likewise great numbers of those called parasitical, which climb to the tops of trees, and appear highly ornamental. One fern produces a large bunch of fruit as hard as hazel nuts, growing on a strong elastic stalk from the centre of the plant. Mosses and grasses are likewise various and abundant. One species of grass, of which are several varieties, has a white knob growing on the point of it.

The real tea tree is not indigenous in Ceylon, but the island produces several species of that genus, one of which (used by the natives) is contained in general Macdowall's

grounds at Columbo, but none of the plants have grown large, nor have any of them produced flowers or berries. Reports have been circulated announcing the discovery of the real tea plant in the woods, but specimens of the shrub have never been produced to determine the credibility due to the assertion. The China tea tree, however, might easily be imported; and there can be little doubt that it would, in time, prove a source of wealth to the island. In the same light may be viewed the nutmeg, clove, pimento, or allspice, and the various plants producing the rich gums and valuable drugs which are brought from the eastern islands. Nutmegs were raised in considerable quantities many years ago under the Dutch administration: but the plants were afterwards destroyed, by order of the government of Batavia.

By the friendly care and persevering attention of Dr. Roxburgh, superintendant of the company's botanical garden at Calcutta, general Macdowall was enabled to make a valuable collection of exotics, which he left in his garden at Columbo in February 1804, when he was removed from the command of the forces in Ceylon, to that of the northern division of the army under the presidency of Fort St. George. During his residence at Columbo he was in the habit of receiving boxes of trees and shrubs by almost every ship: and one acre and a half of ground was completely filled with them, ranged at proper distances, among which were observed the following.

Peaches grafted and trained on espaliers, as beautiful as any specimens of the tree that can be seen. Some of them had blossomed, but the fruit fell when about the size of a large pea. None of them were three years old, and they promised an abundant crop in May 1805. The garden contained about twenty of them *sur treillage*, and many standards. Although so young, the stems of several of them measured from five to six inches in diameter.

Gardeners in hot climates are much perplexed by the trees (which are deciduous in Europe) retaining their leaves all the year. It is said the regular fall of the leaf may be obtained by boring a hole in the trunk, pouring in some quicksilver, and allowing the bark to close over it.

Apples thrive remarkably well on espaliers, and as standards. The trees had not borne fruit, and were but eighteen months old.

Loquaat, a China tree, the generic name unknown to me, but probably to be found in the works of Rumphius or Valentyn. It grew to a large size, and put on a handsome appearance. The fruit is excellent, the wood useful, and the fragrance of the flower not unlike that of the hawthorn.

Leecheé, and *wampee*. The same observations may be applied to those two China trees as to the one above mentioned, excepting what regards the value of the timber

and the perfume of the blossom, none of the samples having reached maturity.

Melicocca, or *genip* of the West-Indies, thrives remarkably well, but is too young to produce fruit.

Mangosteen, or *garcinia*, *nutmeg*, *clove*, *pimento*, *sapota*, or *achras*, *star apple*, or *chrysophyllum*, all appeared growing in high health and vigour, and will, no doubt, bear amply, when of sufficient age.

Asparagus succeeded extremely well.

Besides those above enumerated, there were many other exotic plants in the garden; and the general left directions with his nephew (in the civil service of Ceylon) to give a few of each sort to every person who promised to nourish them.

Not one of the above catalogue had ever been brought into the island previous to the general's arrival, and it was his wish and design to have introduced a large quantity of the spice plants, such as nutmegs and cloves, but the scheme did not obtain the approbation of government.

On his assuming the command of the northern division of the Coromandel army, he established his head quarters in the little fort of Tanjour; and the rajah of that country having given him the use of a garden, he obtained from Columbo specimens of the most valuable of the trees above detailed, which are now thriving, and may one day prove a general advantage to the country.

Any person who is desirous to be particularly informed of the nature of the plants growing in Ceylon, will find the greater part of them detailed in the copious catalogue of Burman, published at Amsterdam in the year 1737, and entitled "*Thesaurus Zeylanicus exhibens plantas in Insula Zeylana nascentes, inter quas plurimæ novæ species, et genera inveniuntur. Omnia iconibus illustrata, ac descripta cura et studio* JOANNIS BURMANNI, *Med. Doct. et Botanices Professoris in Horto medico Amstelaedamensi.*"

The plates contained in it, although rather imperfectly executed, impart pretty clear ideas of the subjects, and are immediately recognised by a person to whom the original productions are familiar. The same plants are likewise described in the voluminous work of Rumphius, entitled "*Herbarium Amboinense.*"

The following are the Cingalese names, given by a peasant, to nineteen wild plants which were picked up one day in the cinnamon garden of Columbo, within the space of a few yards: *dang, eda, monaracudumi, pitowaka, torra, len, tallo, botia, curakang, andanaheeria, diamaneri, bella tanny, tel hinda, coora, caladool, sindrica, siambala, induru, warra.*

The following plants are mentioned by Dr. Thunberg in his travels, when speaking of Columbo.

"The *barringtonia*, with its large and beautiful blossom, grows always by the side of rivulets and near water, and

in a very short time lets its numerous stamina fall out of its blossom.

"The *dolichos pruriens* grows here with its hairy pods, the hairs of which occasion itching, and are celebrated as a vermifuge.

"The fruit of the *solanum melongena* is in general use. It is supposed to expel urine, and dissolve the stone in the bladder. *Cherimelle*, *marmelle*, or slime apple, and *bolange* are common fruits. Two sorts of *crotalaria* grow here, *viz.* the *laburnifolia* and *retusa*, both with yellow flowers. The *menispermum cocculus* is a common climbing plant in the woods.

"The *radix Columbo*, or Columbo root, is brought from the coast of Malabar, but has derived its name from being sent to Europe in ships sailing from Columbo.

"*Sacsander* and *iremus* are two celebrated plants with the physicians of this place. The former is an *aristolochia Indica*, the root of which, steeped in brandy, is bitter, a strengthener of the stomach, and carminative. The latter belongs to the *contortæ*, and is, according to every conjecture, a species of periploca, the root of which is poisonous, and a purifier of the blood.

"*Binnuge* (red and white) is a species of *ipecacuanha*. The root of it is a very good emetic, although it differs from the American. The red is the best. The white has fine stringy roots, and the red is somewhat thicker. Both are

species of *periploca*, creep on the sandy downs, or twine round the bushes which grow in the loose sand."

Cinnamon, which has long rendered the island famous, and still forms the chief article of commerce, is reserved for a more particular description in the following chapter.

Of rice, which is almost the only grain produced, there are four kinds, three of which are cultivated in the mountains, and do not require continual inundation: but a smaller proportion of it is raised in Ceylon than in any other equally extensive territory of India. Where the inhabitants are so liberally supplied with other articles of food, prepared to their hand without labour, agriculture is only a secondary object of attention. A considerable quantity of rice, however, is cultivated, particularly in the inland territories; although the parts under tillage are extremely limited, and the island altogether does not yield a sufficient supply for its own consumption. Rice for the subsistence of the British troops is imported from Bengal. Were agriculture better attended to, this would not be the case, as the lands are perfectly susceptible of cultivation, and might be rendered productive of more abundant crops than could be used by the inhabitants. That which *does* grow is a sweet and nourishing grain, of a flavour superior to the common produce of India. Rice is sold in Ceylon at four times the price for which it is purchased in Bengal.

A small quantity of *gram* has been raised in the vicinity

of Jaffnapatam; and the island is perfectly capable of producing an ample supply of that useful pulse. Horses cannot be maintained without it; and what is necessary for their consumption is imported from Calcutta and Madras.

The operations of husbandry are carried on with the same simplicity and imperfection as in other regions of the east. The plough, which, however, is not generally used, scratches only the surface of the ground. The grain, when ripe, is sometimes pulled up by the roots. Instead of being threshed, it is trodden out either by cattle or by the feet of the natives themselves. After being winnowed, it is separated from the inner coat in a large mortar with a heavy pestle, both made of wood.

The names of the smaller kinds of grain raised in Ceylon are *meneri*, *ammar*, *coracan*, and *mungatta*.

The inhabitants are in the practice of burning down the woods in the high lands for the purposes of cultivation. The soil, which is formed by the ashes of large trees, lasts three years; after which period it is deserted, and new ground is chosen in its room. The ground cultivated in this manner is called *mucalaan*, which signifies land formed from *jungle* of the oldest standing, producing large trees. Few of the natives have spirit sufficient to plant those spots with cocoa-nut trees, which are the only production calculated to thrive in the exhausted lands.

The ground cultivated from small *jungle*, or brushwood,

is called *chemass*, and affords only one crop of the fine or dry grains. It is of a different description from that which produces large trees. It is left for eight or ten years until the shrubs are renewed, when they are cut down and burned as before.

The fine grains and roots growing upon these high lands have never been subjected to any duty to government, but when producing *eloi* (a sort of *paddee* which does not grow in the low grounds) a duty of one tenth is exacted.

Grain is sown at different seasons of the year, which is divided into two harvests, the one called *maha* the great, the other *jalla* the little harvest. The first is sown in the months of July, August, September, and October, according to the nature of the *paddee*, and is reaped during the months of January, February, and March. The finest *paddee* requires to be in the ground seven months: others require four and five months. The second or jalla crop is sown in March, April, and May, and reaped in August, September, and October. Besides these two there is a smaller harvest, which is obtained from the lowest and wettest grounds. The seed is sown in December and January, and the crop is cut down in April and May. At this season the rains fall, and render the produce extremely precarious, as the whole crop is often swept away by the floods.

The returns are generally from seven to ten-fold: but,

in some instances, twenty and even thirty-fold have been known.

Some particular kinds of grain suit the *maha* harvest only, as *mavi*, *hattial* and *hunorawalle.* These three, although sown with the *jalla* crop in March or April, grow but do not produce until the *maha* harvest is ripe in January or February. Excepting these three, all other grains may be sown in either the maha or jalla monsoon. As some kinds of grain require to remain longer in the ground than others, the sowing season is different; and, of course, one kind is sown before another in such proportion as to time that all may be ripe as nearly as possible at one period.

The ground is prepared either with the plough, or by the treading of cattle; sometimes by both when the soil is hard and stiff. In the high lands (called *chemass)* neither the plough nor cattle are used, but the soil is merely raised and mixed with the ashes of the burnt wood. The implements of husbandry, besides the plough, are a kind of hoe, and a hook for cutting down the corn.

" Of rice," says Knox, " they have several sorts called by several names, according to the different times of their ripening, but in taste little disagreeing from one another. Some require seven months before it come to maturity, called *mauvi;* some six, *hauteal;* others ripen in five, *honorowal;* others in four, *henit;* and others in three, *aulfancol:* the price of all these is one and the same. That which is soonest

ripe is most savoury to the taste, but yieldeth the least increase." "All these sorts of rice require water to grow in all the while they stand; so that the inhabitants take great pains in procuring and saving water for their grounds, and in making conveyances of water from the rivers and ponds into their lands, which they are very ingenious in; also in levelling their corn-lands, which must be as smooth as a bowling-green, that the water may cover all over. Neither are their steep and hilly lands incapable of being thus overflown with water: for the doing of which they use this art. They level these hills into narrow allies, some three, some eight feet wide, one beneath another according to the steepness of the hills, working and digging them in that fashion that they lye smooth and flat, like so many stairs up the hills one above another. The waters at the top of the hills falling downwards are let into these allies, and so successively by running out of one into another, water all; first the higher lands, and then the lower. The highest allies having such a quantity of water as may suffice to cover them, the rest runs over unto the next, and that having its proportion unto the next, and so by degrees it falls into all these hanging parcels of ground. These waters last sometimes longer, sometimes a shorter season. Now the rice they sow is according as they foresee their stock of water will last. It sometimes lasts two or three, or four or five months, more or less: the rice therefore they chuse to cast into the ground, is of that sort that may answer the duration of the water. For all

their crop would be spoilt if the water should fail before the corn grew ripe. If they foresee the water will hold out long, then they sow the best and most profitable rice, *viz.* that which is longest of ripening; but if it will not, they must be content to sow of the worse sorts; that is, those that are sooner ripe. Again, they are forced sometimes to sow this younger rice, for preventing the damage it might otherwise meet with, if it should stand longer. For their fields are all in common, which after they have sown, they enclose till harvest: but as soon as the corn first sown becomes ripe, when the owner has reaped it, it is lawful for him to break down his fences, and let in his cattle for grazing; which would prove a great mischief to that corn that required to stand a month or two longer. Therefore if they are constrained to sow later than the rest, either through want or sloth, or some other impediment, yet they make use of that kind of rice that will become ripe, equal with that first sown. And so they all observe one time of reaping to prevent their corn being trampled down or eaten up by the cattle. Thus they time their seed to their harvest; some sowing sooner, some later, but all reaping together, unless they be fields that are enclosed by themselves, and peculiar to one man.

" Where there are no springs or rivers to furnish them with water, as is the case in the northern parts, where there are but two or three springs, they supply this defect by saving rain-water; which they do by casting up great banks

in convenient places to stop and contain the rains that fall, and to save the water till they have occasion to let it out into their fields. The banks are made rounding like a C or half moon: every town has one of these ponds, which if they can but get filled with water, they count their corn as good as in the barn. It was no small work to the ancient inhabitants to make all these banks, of which there is a great number, some being two, some three fathoms in height, and in length some above a mile, some less, not all of a size. They are now grown over with great trees, and so seem natural hills. When they would use the water they cut a gap in one end of the bank, and so draw the water by little and little, as they have occasion for watering their corn. These ponds in dry weather dry up quite. If they should dig a pond deep it would not be so convenient. It would indeed contain the water well, but would not so well, nor in such plenty empty out itself into the fields." "As the water dries out of these ponds they make use of them for fields, treading the mud with buffaloes, and then sowing rice thereon, and frequently casting up water with scoops on it."

"There is yet another sort of rice, which ripens tho' it stand not always in water; and this sort of corn serves for those places where they cannot bring the waters to overflow. This grows with the rains that fall, but is not esteemed equal to the others, and differs both in scent and taste from that which groweth in the watery fields."

"The ordinary season of seed time is in the months of July and August, and that of harvest in or about February; but for land that is well watered, they regard no season; the season is all the year long. When they till their grounds, or reap their corn, they do it by whole towns generally, all helping each other for *attoms*, as they call it; that is that they may help them as much, or as many days again in their fields, which they accordingly do."

"Their plough is a crooked piece of wood, something like an elbow, but little bigger than a man's arm, one end whereof is to hold by, and the other to root up the ground. In the hollow of this plough is a piece of wood fastened three or four inches thick, equal with the breadth of the plough; and at the end of the plough is fixt an iron plate to keep the wood from wearing. There is a beam let into that part of it that the ploughman holds in his hand, to which they make the buffaloes fast to drag it."

"These ploughs are proper for this country, because they are lighter, and so may be the more easy for turning, the fields being short, so that they could not turn with longer, and if heavier, they would sink and be unruly in the mud. These ploughs bury not the grass as ours do, and there is no need they should. For their endeavour is only to root up the ground, and so they overflow it with water, and this rots the grass.

"They plough twice before they sow. But before they

begin the first time, they let in water upon the land to make it more soft and pliable for the plough. After it is once ploughed they make up their banks. For if otherwise they should let it alone till after the second ploughing, it would be mere mud, and not hard enough to use for banking. Now these banks are greatly necessary, not only for paths for the people to go upon through the fields, who otherwise must go in the mud, it may be knee deep; but chiefly to keep in and contain the water, with which by the help of these banks they overflow the grounds. These banks they make as smooth with the backside of their houghs, as a bricklayer can smooth a wall with his trowel. For in this they are very neat. These banks are usually not above a foot over."

"After the land is thus ploughed and the banks finished, it is laid under water again for some time, till they go to ploughing the second time. Now it is exceeding muddy, so that the trampling of the cattle that draw the plough does as much good as the plough itself; for the more muddy the better. Sometimes they use no plough this second time, but only drive the cattle over to make the ground the muddier."

"Their lands being thus ordered, they still keep them overflowed with water, that the weeds and grass may rot. Then they take their corn and lay it to soak in water a whole night, and next day take it out, and lay it in a heap,

and cover it with green leaves, and so let it lye some five or six days to make it grow. Then they take and wet it again, and lay it in a heap covered over with leaves as before, and so it grows and shoots out with blades and roots. In the mean time while this is thus growing, they prepare their ground for sowing. They have a board about four feet long, which they drag over the land by a yoke of buffaloes, not flat ways but upon the edge of it. The use of which is, that it jumbles the earth and weeds together, and also levels and makes the grounds smooth and even, that so the water (for the ground is all this while under water) may stand equal in all places. And wheresoever there is any little hummock standing out of the water, which they easily see by their eye, with the help of this board they break and lay even. And so it stands overflown while the seed is growing, and becöme fit to sow, which usually is eight days after they lay it in soak."

"When the seed is ready to sow, they drain out all the water, and with little boards of about a foot and a half long, fastened upon long poles, they trim the land over again, laying it very smooth, making small furrows all along, that in case rain or other waters should come in, it might drain away; for more water now would endanger rotting the corn. Then they sow their corn, which they do with very exact evenness, strewing it with their hands, as we strew salt upon meat."

"Thus it stands without any water, till such time as the corn be grown three or four inches above the ground. There were certain gaps made in the banks to let out the water, these are now stopped to keep it in: which is not only to nourish the corn, but to kill the weeds. For they keep their fields as clean as a garden without a weed. Then when the corn is grown about a span high, the women come and weed it, and pull it up where it grew too thick, and transplant it where it wants. And so it stands overflown till the corn be ripe, when they let out the water again to make it dry for reaping. They never use any dung, but their manner of ploughing and soaking the ground serves instead thereof.

"At reaping they are excellently good, just after the English manner. As the whole town join together in tilling, so they do in harvest also. All unite in reaping one man's field, and so to the next, until every man's corn be down. And the custom is that every man during the reaping of his corn, finds all the rest with victuals. The women's work is to gather up the corn after the reapers, and carry it all into one place.

"They use not threshing, but tread out the corn with cattle, which is a far quicker and easier way. They may tread out in a day forty or fifty bushels at least with the help of half a dozen cattle.

"When they are to tread their corn they choose a con-

venient adjoining place. Here they lay out a round piece of ground some twenty or five-and-twenty feet over, from which they cut away the upper turf. Then certain ceremonies are used. First they adorn this place with ashes made into flowers and branches, and round circles. Then they take divers strange shells, and pieces of iron, and some sorts of wood, and a bunch of betel nuts, and lay all these in the middle of the pit, and a large stone upon them. Then the women, whose proper work it is, bring each their burthen of reaped corn upon their heads, and go round in the pit three times, and then fling it down; and after this without any more ado, bring in the rest of the corn as fast as they can. For this labour, and that of weeding, the women have a fee due to them, called *warapol*, that is as much corn as shall cover the stone, and the other conjuration instruments at the bottom of the pit.

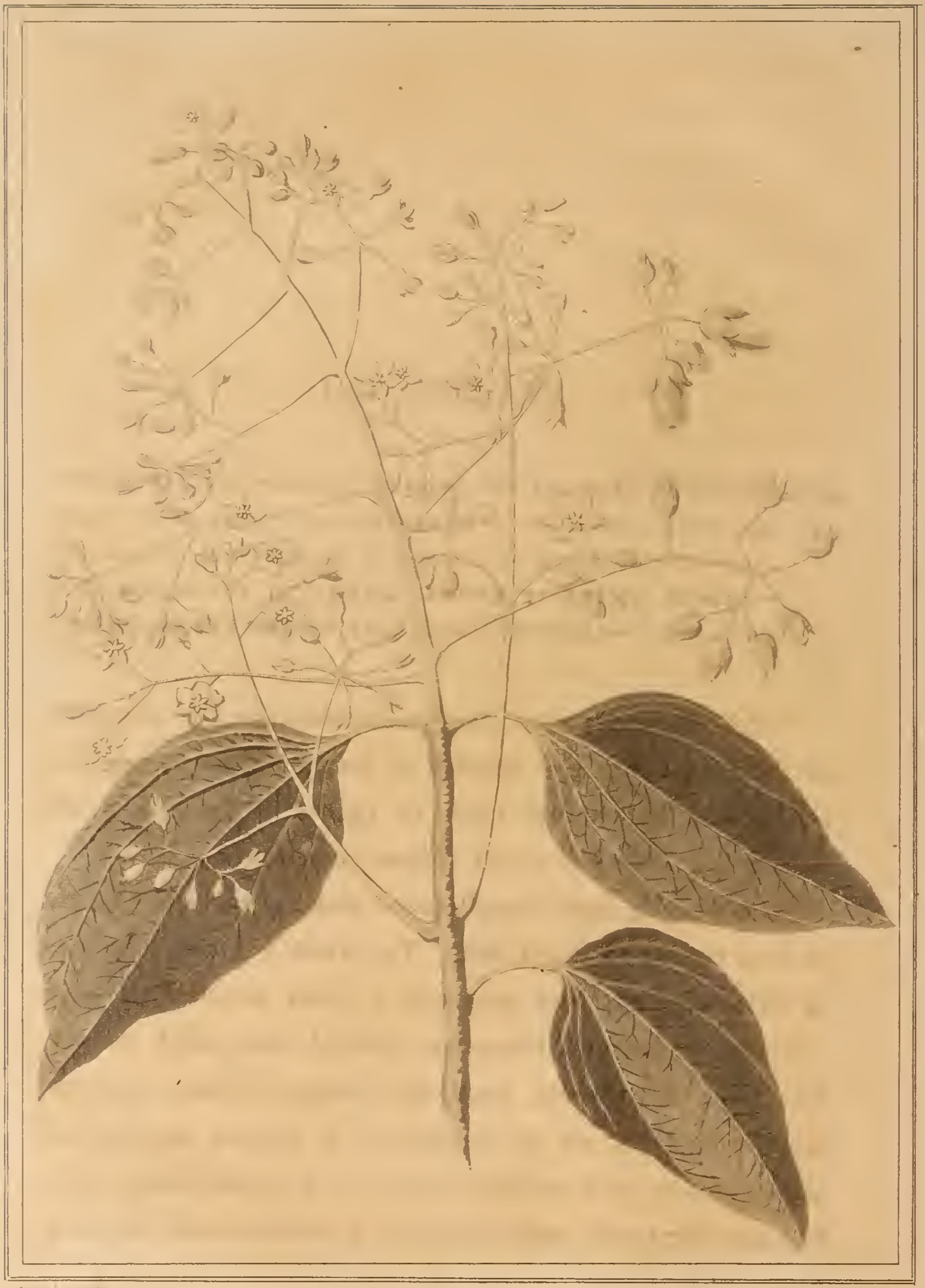
"They frequently carry away the new reaped corn into the pit, and tread it out as soon as they have cut it down, to secure it from the rains, which in some parts are very great and often; and barns they have none big enough. But in other places not so much given to rains, they sometimes set it up in a *cock*, and let it stand some months.

"They unshale their rice from its outward husk by beating it in a mortar, or more often on the ground; but some of these sorts of rice must first be boiled in the husk, otherwise in beating it will break to powder. Which rice,

as it is accounted, so I by experience found to be the wholsomest: this they beat a second time to take off a bran from it; and after that it becomes white.

" Besides rice, tho' far inferior to it, there are divers other sorts of corn, which serve the people for food in the absence of rice, which scarcely holds out with many of them above half the year. There is *coracan*, which is a small seed like mustard seed. This they grind to meal or beat in a mortar, and make cakes of it, baking it upon the coals in a potsherd, or dress it otherwise. If they which are not used to it, eat it, it gripes their bellies. When they are minded to grind it, they have for a mill two round stones, which they turn with their hands by the help of a stick. There are several sorts of this corn. Some ripen in three months, and some require four. If the ground be good it yields a great increase; and grows both on the hills and in the plains. There is another kind of corn called *tanna*, it is much eaten in the northern parts, but little sown in *Conde Uda*. It is as small as the former, but yieldeth a far greater increase. From one grain may spring up two, three, four or five stalks, according to the quality of the ground, on each stalk one ear, that contains thousands of grains. I think it gives the greatest increase of any one seed in the world. Each husbandman sows not above a pottle at a seeds'-time. It grows up two feet, or two feet and a half from the ground. The way of gathering it when ripe, is,

that the women go and crop off the ears with their hands, and bring them home in baskets. They only take off the ears of *coracan* also, but they being tough, are cut with knives. *Tanna* must be parched in a pan, and then is beaten in a mortar to unhusk it. It boils like rice, but swells far more, and is accounted wholsome: the taste is not bad but very dry; the fashion flattish, the colour yellow and very lovely to the eye. It ripens in four months, some sorts of it in three. There are also divers other sorts, which grow on dry land (as the former) and ripen with the rain: as *moung*, somewhat like vetches, growing in a cod: *omb*, a small seed boiled and eaten as rice. It has an operation pretty strange, which is, that when it is new it makes them who eat it like drunk, sick and spue; this only when sown in some grounds, for in all it has not this effect; and being old, none have it. *Minere*, a small seed. *Boumas*, which we call *garavances*. *Tolla*, a seed used to make oil, with which they anoint themselves: sometimes they parch it and eat it with *jaggery*, a kind of brown sugar."



Engraved by F. Madeley.

Laurus Cinnamomum

CHAPTER XIII.

A PARTICULAR ACCOUNT OF THE CINNAMON—DESCRIPTION OF THE TREE—METHODS OF CULTIVATION—MANNER OF STRIPPING OFF THE BARK—PACKING ON BOARD SHIP—QUALITIES—PLACES WHERE IT GROWS—QUANTITY EXPORTED—CINNAMON OIL—LABOURERS—BEAUTY OF THE PLANTATIONS.

THE cinnamon tree, *laurus cinnamomum*, or *coorundoo* of the Cingalese, is a species of laurel of the monogynia order, and enneandria class of plants; "*foliis trinerviis ovato-oblongis: nervis versus apicem evanescentibus.*"

The trees, in their uncultivated state, grow to the height of from twenty to thirty feet. The trunk is about three feet in circumference, and puts out a great number of large spreading horizontal branches, clothed with thick foliage. The roots are fibrous, hard, and tough, covered with an odoriferous bark, on the outside of a greyish brown, and on the inside of a reddish hue. They strike about three feet into the earth, and spread to a considerable distance.

Many of them smell strongly of camphire, which is extracted from them.

The leaves are of an oval shape, from four to six inches in length, and from two inches to two and three quarters in breadth, of a smooth surface, and plain edge. They are strongly marked by three principal nerves, which, with four smaller, all take their rise from the pedicule. The middle nerve stretches to the point of the leaf. The two others nearly bissect each half of it lengthwise. The four smaller radiate, in a corresponding manner, towards the edge of the leaf. From these an innumerable quantity of diminutive fibres spread in all directions, completing the texture of the leaf. The stalk of it, which is nearly three quarters of an inch in length, is very pleasant to eat, and when chewed flavours strongly of cinnamon, but is fresher and more full of juice. The leaf itself has scarcely any taste. When the young leaves first shoot out from the tops of the branches they are partly of a bright red, and partly of a pale yellow hue. After a short time they become of a beautiful pea green, and when they have attained full maturity they put on a dark olive colour. The upper surface is of a deep, and the back of the leaf of a light, green. They shoot out from the stalks, directly opposite to one another.

The blossoms grow on slender foot-stalks, of a pale yellow colour, from the axillæ of the leaves, and extremity

of the branches. They are numerous clusters of small white flowers, having a brownish tinge in the centre, about the same size as those of the lilac, which it resembles. The flower is monopetalous, stellated into six points, has nine stamina, and one style. It produces a fruit of the form of an acorn, in taste resembling the juniper berry, but not so large as a black currant. When removed from its socket it is of the shape of an olive: and, when dry, it becomes a thin shell, containing an oval kernel about the size of the seed of an apple. The smell of the blossom is not strong, but extremely pleasant, resembling a mixture of the rose and lilac. The fruit, when boiled in water, yields an oil, which floats at the top, and answers for burning in lamps. When allowed to conjeal it becomes of a solid substance like to wax, and is formed into candles. The smell of it is much more agreeable than that of cocoa-nut oil, but it is only used for these purposes within the precincts of the court of Candy.

The appearance of this tree strongly resembles that of the *laurus cassia* of Sumatra; and the bark of the old wood possesses the came qualities in both islands. The cinnamon of Ceylon, however, is greatly improved by cultivation; and that, which is most highly prized, is stripped from shoots of young trees.

The trees which are planted for the purpose of obtaining cinnamon, shoot out a great number of branches apparently

from the same root, and are not permitted to rise above the height of ten feet. Those sprouts, which are cut down to be barked, are of the length and thickness of a common walking stick.

Ten sorts of cinnamon bushes are described by the natives, and the greater part of them are to be seen in the plantations at Columbo, but the apparent difference consists merely in a slight variation in the form of the leaf. This diversity, however, is discernible even in riding through the woods; and the cinnamon of one shrub often differs in quality from that of another. Five kinds only are esteemed fit for use, and are named *peni coorundoo*, or honey cinnamon; *nu coorundoo*, snake cinnamon; *rase* or *rasle coorundoo*, taste cinnamon; *soovende coorundoo*, smell cinnamon; and *kahatle coorundoo*, bitter cinnamon. The five unserviceable are called *nike* or *wal*, *sevel*, *toonpat*, *kato*, and *daval*, *coorundoo*; or wild, glue or gum, three-leaved, thorned, and drum, cinnamon.

Those which are cultivated may be reared in the four following ways: in the first place from seeds which must be sown during the rainy season; secondly, from shoots cut from large trees; thirdly, from layers; and fourthly, by transplanting old stumps.

The first method of culture, by seeds, is the least approved, as it requires greater attention than the others, and the trees are longer before they arrive at perfection. In

three years time every plant affords one branch fit for cutting, at the end of five years it gives from three to five branches, but eight years elapse before it yields ten branches of an inch in thickness. From the age of ten to twelve years the cinnamon trees flourish in greatest perfection; but the period of their life is not limited, as every year produces new roots, from which new branches spring.

The second mode is less tedious than the first, but unless the sprouts are continually watered, they do not thrive. Those taken for this purpose must be very young, not having more than three leaves; if older they die.

For the third mode, that of propagating by layers, we are indebted to Dr. Wright, who justly observes that the numerous side branches, issuing from the bottom of the trunk, furnish opportunities of obtaining plenty of layers; and the trees thus propagated will be fit for decortication in eight years.

The fourth mode, that of transplanting the old roots, has been much practised of late years. The roots, planted in this manner, yield cinnamon shoots of the usual size, twelve months after they have been placed in the ground. Care must be taken, however, that none of the roots, which are more than one tenth of an inch in diameter, receive any injury in transplanting. If hurt, they certainly die. The least scratch on the roots of those small plants, which have not above three leaves, is sufficient to destroy them.

A fifth method of cultivation, mentioned by Thunberg, is not less effectual than any of the others. "When the tree is cut down, and a fire kindled on the spot to consume the stump, the roots, afterwards, throw out a number of long straight shoots, which yield incomparably fine cinnamon. From these are cut the cinnamon walking sticks, which in appearance resemble those of the hazel tree, and retain the taste and smell of cinnamon. They have no scent, however, unless when the bark is rubbed."

A dry soil and frequent rain are necessary to produce cinnamon of the finest quality. The surface of the *marendan*, or grounds planted at Columbo, is a pure white sand, under which is a deep stratum of rich mould. In some parts, where this earth is deficient, the trees are barren, and not worth cutting. In marshy places, also, they thrive no better, but become decrepid, and the bark acquires a bitterness, which destroys its sweet and aromatic qualities.

The cinnamon blossoms in the month of January, at which season the plantations look most beautiful. In April the fruit is ripe, and soon afterwards the business of decortication begins. May and June are esteemed the best months for this purpose, and are styled the *great harvest*. July, August, and September are not so good. But November and December are considered favourable, and called the *little harvest*. In the plantations, however, belonging to

government, the cutting down commences in May, and ends in October.

In this operation many hands are employed. Each man is obliged to furnish every day a certain quantity of sticks, about as large a bundle as he can easily carry. The first object of the labourer is to select a tree of the proper kind, which he distinguishes by its leaves and other characteristics. When it bears fruit it is in good health, and the bark is peeled off without difficulty. To prove whether or not it is ripe, he strikes his hatchet obliquely into a branch; if, on drawing it out, the bark divides from the wood, the cinnamon has attained its maturity; but if it adhere, it must remain growing until it exhibit that sign. The shoots which he cuts down are from three to five feet in length, and about three quarters of an inch in diameter. When this part of his labour is over, he carries his load to a hut or shed, situate in an open spot of the garden, where, with the assistance of a companion, he strips off and cleans the bark. The fragrance around the hamlets, where these operations are performed, is extremely delightful. But in other parts of the plantations, where the bushes are not shaken by any violence, the smell of cinnamon cannot be distinguished.

The knife employed in decortication is of the form of a hook, like that used by shoemakers, two inches and a half in length, and sharp-pointed. When a branch is com-

pletely cleared of small shoots and leaves, the cinnamon peeler, seated on the ground, makes two parallel cuts up and down the length of the bark, which, after being gradually loosened with the convex edge of the knife, he strips off in one entire slip about half the circumference of the branch. This slip he hands to his companion, who is seated, in a similar manner, by his side, with one foot pressed against a piece of wood, from which a round stick slopes towards his waist. Upon this stick he lays the slip of bark, keeps it steady with his other foot, and holding the handle of the knife in one hand, and the point of it in the other, scrapes off the epidermis, which is very thin, of a brown colour on the outside, and green within. It consists of two coats which adhere together, and are thus removed at the same time. Sometimes the bark is allowed to lie a day and a half before this last operation is performed. In executing it, a considerable degree of attention is required; for if any part of the outer bark be allowed to remain, it gives an unpleasant bitter taste to the cinnamon. According to Thunberg's account, the epidermis is scraped off, before the cinnamon is peeled from the branches; whence it may be inferred that the operation has sometimes been performed the one way, and sometimes the other. Being then perfectly clean, it is of a pale yellow colour, and about the thickness of parchment. When spread on mats in the sun to dry, it curls up, and attains somewhat of a darker hue. The smaller

pieces are then inserted into the larger, and both contracting still closer, put on the form of solid rods. These are tied up with pliant canes in bundles, generally of such a size that one man can carry two of them suspended from an elastic bough. Sometimes, however, they are made so large that a man can only carry one bundle.

The cinnamon, when brought to the government warehouses, undergoes a second packing previous to being shipped for Europe. Each bundle being formed of the weight of ninety-two pounds, and about four feet in length, is firmly bound with cords, and sewed into a double covering of coarse cloth. When one layer of bales is stowed in the hold of a ship, a quantity of loose black pepper is thrown in above it, and all the crevices are completely filled up. The surface being then smooth, another set of bales is laid down, and packed in the same manner. The pepper, by drawing the superfluous moisture to it, preserves and improves the cinnamon, while, at the same time, it heightens its own flavour. Thus the two spices prove mutually beneficial to each other. As a sufficient quantity of pepper is not raised in the island to answer the demand in packing, the deficiency is supplied by importation from the coast of Malabar.

The best cinnamon is of a light brown colour, and does not much exceed the thickness of royal paper. It is of a fine texture, smooth surface, pliable, and brittle. Its taste

is sweet and poignant, but not so strong as to occasion pain, and not succeeded by any after-taste of an ungrateful nature. Coarse cinnamon is of a dark brown colour, thick, and hard. It is hot and pungent, occasions pain to the tongue, and leaves behind it a mucilaginous and bitter taste.

The cinnamon tree flourishes in only a very small proportion of the island. The growth of it is confined to the south-west angle, formed by the sea coast from Negumbo to Matura. None is to be seen on the western side beyond Chilauw, nor on the eastern side beyond Tengalle. A few solitary bushes, interspersed amidst the forests of Mahagam, are scarcely worth being mentioned. In the northern parts, about Trincomallee, and Jaffnapatam, where the climate is dry and sultry, a plant of it is not to be seen. In the corner where it grows, the air is moist, and rains fall every month. The superior excellence of the bark raised there is to be attributed to the nature of the soil and climate, both of which contribute to the perfection of its growth. From this circumstance it is probable that the cinnamon of Ceylon will continue long unrivalled. Many plants of it have been cultivated on the coast of Coromandel, but there, as well as in other places where experiments have been made, it has never failed to degenerate.

The largest plantation is situate in the vicinity of Columbo, and measures upwards of twelve miles in circum-

ference. Others, of a smaller size, lie near Negumbo, Caltura, Point de Galle, and Matura; and all stretch along the sea coast. Cinnamon likewise grows in considerable quantities farther inland; but it is there entirely uncultivated, and on that account of an inferior quality.

Before the days of the Dutch governor Falk*, who presided in Ceylon thirty years, before its conquest by the English, an opinion prevailed that cinnamon was only good when found in its wild state, and that on being cultivated it no longer continued genuine. This governor, however, although the natives discouraged him from the attempt, determined to make an experiment. Accordingly, as Thunberg relates, a small quantity of berries was sown in his garden at the *grand pass*, in the neighbourhood of Columbo. The plants grew up quickly, and had every appearance of flourishing, but soon afterwards withered and died. On accurately investigating the cause of their untoward fate, it appeared that a Cingalese, who earned his livelihood by barking cinnamon in the woods, and saw, with vexation, the planting of it, which in time would render the gathering of it more easy, had secretly besprinkled them in the night with warm water. After the discovery of this stratagem, the governor caused berries to be planted again in several

* Mr. Falk signed the treaty of peace with Candy in 1766. He died at Columbo in 1781.

places, both on a small and a large scale. Many thousands of these grew up, throve well, and, in due time, yielded cinnamon of the best quality.

Little attention, however, was paid to the cultivation of cinnamon by succeeding governors. The plantations, when taken possession of by the English, exhibited an appearance of great neglect, having no fence sufficient to prevent the depredations of cattle, and being completely overgrown with all the wild shrubs, weeds, and creepers, in the production of which the soil is so prolific. Within these eight years last past, great ipmrovements have been made both in the culture of the trees, and the management of the grounds. This valuable branch of revenue was regarded by Mr. North with that attention which its importance merits, and the beneficial effects of his superintending care continue still to be daily experienced.

The quantity of cinnamon sent yearly to England amounts to four thousand bales, or three hundred and sixty-eight thousand pounds, for which the East-India company pay to government a stipulated price of sixty thousand pounds sterling, and carry it home at their own expence. The investment is chiefly made up of cinnamon taken from the grounds belonging to his Britannic Majesty. The greater part of that which is brought from the Candian territories is of a thicker and coarser kind, being the bark of old trees. Of late years the quality of it was so extremely

bad that it was judged proper not to send any of it to Europe, to prevent the character of the Ceylon cinnamon from being depreciated in the public esteem. One thousand bales are said to be consumed annually by the slaves in the mines of South America. Each slave receives a certain quantity *per* day, cut into pieces of about one inch in length, which he eats as a preservative against the noxious exhalations of the mines. If a market could be procured for so large a quantity, the plantations at Columbo alone could yield a supply of cinnamon sufficient to produce an annual revenue to government of two hundred thousand pounds sterling.

Some bales are sold to Indian merchants for the purpose of supplying the eastern markets, but under restrictions which prevent any of it from being shipped for Europe. The trade in cinnamon is retained exclusively in the hands of government. Its subjects are permitted to deal in every other commodity which the country affords.

Oil of cinnamon was formerly made at Columbo of the fragments and small pieces which were broken off in packing. Lately a considerable quantity of it has been distilled from the coarse cinnamon, which was deemed unworthy of exportation in any other shape. Three hundred pounds of the bark are said not to yield more than one bottle, or twenty-four ounces of oil*. It is therefore necessarily dear, com-

* This may proceed from the process of distillation not being properly understood in Ceylon.

monly selling at the rate of ten guineas a quart. It is at the same time highly esteemed both as a medicine and a perfume. That of the best quality, which is extracted from the finer sorts of cinnamon, is of a pale gold colour, and different from all other oils; its excellence is determined by its sinking in water. The oil distilled from coarse cinnamon is of a dark brown colour, and does not sink in water.

The wood of the tree, when deprived of the bark, has no smell, and is chiefly used as fuel.

The persons employed in the cultivation and barking of the cinnamon are called *chalias*. They are a distinct tribe of people, not the lowest but one of the poorest of the Cingalese *casts*. They seem, however, to be in full possession of contentment, feel no wants, wear no clothing but a bandage about the waist, and live almost entirely in a state of nature. They are governed in the same manner as other descriptions of the natives, by their own officers, over whom is placed an English superintendent, who is looked up to as the chief of the whole tribe. The inhabitants of each district where cinnamon grows are bound to deliver yearly a certain quantity ready prepared for the market. On which condition they enjoy gardens, and pieces of land rent free, together with other privileges. They likewise receive additional remunerations, sometimes in rice, and sometimes in money, according to the time and labour which they employ in the public service. Every man is obliged to

furnish a stated proportion in the season; and if an individual deliver a larger quantity than what is required of him, he draws extra payment for the surplus portion.

The surface of the soil where the cinnamon flourishes, as has been mentioned, is in many places a pure white sand, extremely fine, and of a much lighter colour than any that is to be seen upon the sea shore. In some parts of the plantation at Columbo, where a road through it has been artificially made with red marl, the sand lying in heaps on each side has the appearance of snow. This similarity never fails to strike the eyes of an European, but the comparison cannot occur to the mind of a native, to whom snow and winter are ideas unknown.

The plantation looks like an extensive forest, and exhibits no visible marks of culture besides the youth of many of the trees. On one side it is bounded by a broad belt of cocoa-nut trees stretching along the shore: on another it is washed by the winding lake of Columbo: on a third it is encircled by the hamlets, and rude gardens of the natives, and the picture is embellished by a long and lofty range of the Candian mountains. Woods, groves, and thickets, extend in open prospect farther than the eye can see, and often present at one view two square miles of the most elegantly varied and most luxuriant foliage which nature can display.

Nothing can exceed the luxury of riding through the cinnamon grounds in the cool hours of the morning. The air is then peculiarly mild and refreshing, and the sweetness of spring is blended with the glow of summer. Every plant in the garden is at all times clothed with a fresh and lively green, and when the laurels put forth their flame-coloured leaves, and delicate blossoms, the scenery is exquisitely beautiful. The fragrance, however, is not so powerful as strangers are apt to imagine. It has already been mentioned that the cinnamon bark emits no scent when the trees are growing in tranquillity, and it is only in a few places that the air is perfumed with the delicious odour of other shrubs, the greater proportion of the flowers and blossoms of India being entirely destitute of that pleasing quality.

Gentle undulations in the ground, and clumps of majestic trees interspersed amidst the coppices of cinnamon, add extremely to the wildness and picturesque appearance of the scene; and a person cannot move twenty yards into a grove without meeting a hundred species of beautiful plants and flowers springing up spontaneously, and blooming in perpetual succession. Several roads for carriages make winding circuits in the woods; and numerous intersecting footpaths penetrate the deepest thickets. In sauntering amidst these groves, a botanist or a simple

lover of nature may experience the most supreme delight which the vegetable creation is capable of affording. To see and admire the rich beauties of the scenes, and to taste of that tranquil solitude which reigns in the sequestered walks, is to enjoy such rapturous feelings as can only be surpassed in the resplendent abodes of purer spirits.

CHAPTER XIV.

ANIMALS—BEASTS—BIRDS—REPTILES—INSECTS—FISHES.

THE animals of Ceylon being, in general, the same as are found in other countries throughout the east, and presenting but few uncommon species; perhaps none that are undescribed, little more shall be here attempted than simply to mention the names of those which are most abundant, and to glance at any of their qualities which are particularly striking.

The elephant stands at the head of the class of quadrupeds here, as well as in every other country which it inhabits. The manner in which these noble animals are caught and tamed is described from actual observation in the course of the tour round the island. As probably enough is said concerning them there, any account of them here is unnecessary.

Next to the elephant, the buffaloe is the animal which

bears the strongest marks of real Indian origin. It abounds in Ceylon both in a wild and a tame state. It is similar to the buffaloe of Bengal and Sumatra, but very different from the animal known by that name in the southern parts of Europe. The size of it is inferior to that of an English ox: the legs are shorter; the hoofs larger; the horns bend backward upon the neck; the colour is black, with a mixture of iron grey; and the hairs are so thinly scattered over its body that they only partially cover its sun-burned skin. It has no hump upon its shoulders. Its appearance is fierce, ugly, and often terrifying. An unprotected traveller finds it extremely unpleasant to encounter either a single one or a herd in their wild state; but when tamed and accustomed to labour, they are as tractable as other oxen. The milk of the female is not of so sweet a flavour as that of the common cow, nor does it yield butter of so good a quality. They are employed in the plough, and in drawing carts, in places where these vehicles are used.

This animal finds a luxury in rolling itself in a muddy pool, in which situation it is often seen, wallowing up to the neck, for several hours during the heat of the day. Many of them, from the little work which they have to do, are but half tamed, and are allowed to wander about in pairs and herds without any keeper. If they see a person at a distance, they advance towards him, making frequent halts

with a view to reconnoitre. The person pursued commonly contrives to hide himself until they alter their course: but might continue his journey unhurt by not taking any notice of them, as curiosity seems to be the motive by which they are actuated.

"Upon an attack, or alarm, they fly for a short distance, and then suddenly face about, and draw up in battle array, with surprising quickness and regularity; their horns being laid back, and their muzzles projecting. Upon the nearer approach of the danger that presses on them they make a second flight, and a second time halt, and form; and this excellent mode of retreat, which but few natives of the human race have attained to such a degree of discipline as to adopt, they continue 'till they gain a neighbouring wood*."

White buffaloes are sometimes seen in Ceylon, but they are extremely rare, and have a sickly appearance. It is therefore probable that the whiteness is occasioned by an innate disorder, similar to that which produces *albinos* among the black part of the human species. One of those buffaloes was presented to us at Matura, on the 16th of August, 1800. Its skin was of a red and livid hue, very thinly scattered over with white hairs; and the animal was looked upon as a singular *lusus naturæ*.

* See Marsden's History of Sumatra.

The common oxen are of a diminutive size, and have a hump upon their shoulders. They are of various colours, but black is most prevalent. The island produces a sufficient number of them to supply the wants of the natives, who kill none of them for their own use: but cattle are frequently imported from the coast of Coromandel to supply the demands of the British garrisons. A common bullock is bought for one pound four shillings sterling; and beef is sold at the rate of fourpence per pound. Both buffaloes and oxen are occasionally subject to an epidemic distemper, which carries off one half of their number in the space of a few months. This deficiency is supplied by importation, for which government holds out an encouragement to the natives. These cattle, commonly called bullocks, are used in the plough, in carts, and in carrying burdens on their backs; which last is the most common method of transporting camp equipage and military stores. They are often so wild as to throw their loads; and require to be trained before they are fit for service.

Hogs are extremely plentiful, and their flesh is daily used at the European settlements.

They are carried to market alive on a stool formed of three boards. The animal is bound down with ropes upon the uppermost, and the two others, notched into it, serve as feet on which the machine rests. It is slung from a pole, either of common wood or bamboo, which is placed on the

shoulders of two men; and when temporary rest becomes necessary, the convenience of the feet enables them the more easily to lay down their load.

Pork is an aliment much relished by the Dutch and Portuguese inhabitants. The quality of it at Columbo is excellent, equal if not superior to any that is fed on board ship. The animals are extremely fat and unwieldly; their flesh white and delicate. Their feeding is likewise perfectly clean and extremely nourishing, the principal articles on which they subsist being cocoa-nuts and *jack*-fruit. Notwithstanding this circumstance, from the mistaken prejudice of the English inhabitants, pork rarely appears on their tables; and those persons who are fond of it take care to be supplied by European butchers, on whose attestation they can depend for the guarded manner in which the pigs have been reared and fattened. A well-fed hog may be bought for ten shillings; and pork is sold at the same price as beef.

Sheep and goats are not natives of the island, and but few of them are reared in it. Those that are necessary to supply the markets are imported from the coast of Coromandel and Bengal. In some places, however, particularly in the province of Jaffnapatam, they thrive extremely well. The common price of a sheep at Columbo (in 1804) was one pound twelve shillings. At the same time, one could have been purchased at Jaffnapatam for one shilling. A little kid then sold for sixteen shillings. Mutton is not

esteemed good at Columbo unless gentlemen feed it themselves for their own tables. In doing this, they give the sheep the leaves of the *jack*-tree, and a mixture of *gram* and *paddee* in the house; and at certain hours allow them to pasture on the natural grass of the country. Those of the flock which are destined to be first killed are kept in constant confinement. Mutton fed in this manner is excellent; but a sheep is then estimated to cost its owner four pounds sterling.

The horse is not a native of Ceylon; and there are none of these animals in the island unless a few which have been imported for the pleasure of the European inhabitants. Some, however, have been bred at Jaffnapatam, and the small island of Delft lying between it and the coast of Coromandel, where they are said to have been first placed by the Portuguese. These horses are a mixture between the Arab and the common horse of the Carnatic, and are not held in high estimation. Real Arabs are imported from Bombay, and are chiefly used for the saddle. Manilla, Pegu, and Acheen horses are employed for drawing gigs and other light vehicles. Their expensive nature, both in purchase and in keeping, prevents them from being used in domestic labour. A small horse of good qualities cannot be bought under sixty pounds sterling; and a fine Arab costs, at least, one hundred and twenty.

The woods abound with deer of various species, among

which are elks and spotted deer, and one very diminutive animal, not exceeding the size of a common hare. It is very beautifully made, and of as perfect a form as any deer in the world. This animal is as common in Ceylon as hares are in Great Britain. Its flesh is esteemed particularly wholesome. The natives bring these deer alive in cages to Columbo, where one may be purchased for two shillings. It is there commonly called the *moose deer*, but is very different from the animal known by that name in America, the one being the largest, the other the smallest of the cervine tribe. In some respects it corresponds with the *cervus guineensis* of Linnæus. I never saw one with horns.

Hares abound everywhere, and do not appear to differ from those of England. Wild hogs are likewise extremely plentiful: their flesh is excellent, and much esteemed.

The royal tiger is not found in Ceylon: but a smaller species commonly called *cheta* is numerous. It is spotted like the leopard, and, when full grown, measures five feet in length. There are two species of the wild cat. The bear likewise inhabits the forests, but has been rarely seen. Jackals are extremely common. This animal seems to partake of the nature of the dog and the fox. Monkeys, of various species, swarm all over the country. "Some of them," says Knox, "are as large as our English spaniels, of a darkish grey colour, and black faces, with great white

beards round from ear to ear, which make them look just like old men. There is another sort of the same bigness, but different in colour, being milk white both in body and face, having great beards like the others; of these white ones there is not such plenty. Both these sorts do little mischief, keeping in the woods, eating only leaves and buds of trees, but when they are caught, they eat any thing. This sort the *Chingulayes* call in their language *wanderows*. There is yet another sort of apes, of which there is great abundance, which coming in multitudes do a great deal of mischief to the corn that groweth in the woods, so that the people are fain to keep watch all the day long to scare them out; and as soon as they are gone to fray them away at one end of the field; others who wait for such an opportunity come skipping in at the other; and before they can turn, will fill both bellies and hands to carry away with them; and to stand all round to guard their fields is more than they can do. This sort of monkey has a white face, no beard, but long hair on the crown of the head, which parteth and hangeth down like a man's. These are so impudent that they come into the gardens, and eat such fruit as grows there. They are called *reelöwas*. The flesh of all these sorts of apes is accounted good to eat, as is also that of the squirrels." The porcupine, racoon, armadillo, several species of squirrel, mungoos, *viverra* ichneumon, bandy coot, flying-fox, and several kinds of

rat are numerous. The *pariar* dog is an inmate in every Ceylonese family.

"For the catching of deer or other wild animals," according to Knox, "the Cingalese use this ingenious device. In dark moons when there are drisling rains, they go about this design. They have a basket made with canes somewhat like unto a funnel, in which they put a potsherd with fire in it, together with a certain wood, which grows there, full of sap like pitch, and that will burn like a pitch barrel. This being kindled in the potsherd flames gives an exceeding light. They carry it upon their heads with the flame foremost; the basket hiding him that is under it, and those who come behind it. In their hands they carry three or four small bells, which they tingle as they go, that the noise of their steps may not be heard. Behind the person who carries the light, men follow with bows and arrows. So they go walking along the plains, and by the pond sides, where they think the deer will come out to feed: which when they see the light, stand still and stare upon it, seeing only the light, and hearing nothing but the tingling of the bells.

"The eyes of the deer or other cattle first appear to the people glistening like stars of light or diamonds; and by long experience they distinguish one beast from another by its eyes. All animals, as deer, hares, elephants, bears, &c. excepting only wild hogs, stand still, wondering at this

strange sight, till the people come as near as they desire, and so let fly their arrows upon them. And by these means they seldom go, but they catch something. The blades of their hunting arrows are at least a foot or a foot and a half long, and the length of the staff of the arrow is a *rian;* that is about two cubits.

" Again they observe wheer a deer's hunt is to break over the hedges into the corn grounds. There they set a sharp pole like a spear full against the haunt; so that when the deer leaps over, it thrusts itself upon the point of it.

" If a tiger chance to come into their grounds and kill a cow, they take notice of the place thro' which he passed, and set a cross-bow there ready charged. The tiger coming that way again touches something that is fastened to the trigger of the cross-bow, and so it discharges upon him.

" The wild hog is of all others the hardest to be caught; and it is dangerous to attempt the catching of him. For the people make valour to consist in three things, one is *to fight against the enemy*, another *to hunt the elephant*, and the third *to catch hogs.* Yet sometimes they entrap them by art, after this manner. They dig a hole in the earth of a convenient depth, and fix divers sharp stakes in the bottom of it. Then they cover it over lightly with earth and leaves, and plant thereupon roots which the hog loves, as potatoes or such like, which will grow there. And the pit remains,

it may be sometimes months or half a year, till at last a hog comes, and while he is rooting his weight betrays him and in he falls.

"Again, sometimes they set a falling trap of an exceeding weight, and under it plant roots and such like things, which the hog delights in. There are contrivances under the weeds and leaves, which when he goes to eat by touching or treading upon something fastened to the trap, it falls down upon him. These are made so artfully, that people sometimes have been caught and destroyed by them. Once in my remembrance such a trap fell upon three women and killed them. They had been stealing cotton in a plantation, and fearing lest they should be caught went to creep out at a hole, where this trap stood."

The success of the viverra ichneumon in destroying snakes is well authenticated; and it has been generally believed that this little animal applies instinctively to certain plants, which it eats as an antidote to the poison of those venomous reptiles. The plants of which this virtue is ascribed are, *ophiorhiza mungos*, *strychnos colubrina*, and *ophioxylon serpentinum;* but the inhabitants of Ceylon are not acquainted with any of them; and it is doubtful whether or not they are to be found in the island. The natives, however, assert that they have often seen the ichneumon attack and kill the *cobra di capello*, one of the most dangerous of snakes.

The musk-rat, or perfuming shrew, is only a little larger than a common mouse. It has a long tapering snout, and makes a squeaking or chirping noise. It is the cause of polluting wine by passing over the empty bottles, or the corks before they are put into the bottles. But it has not the power of tainting a bottle of wine, which is well corked and sealed up. Madeira is sometimes contaminated with musk, because it is bottled in the country; but this flavour is never found in claret which is bottled in London, or Bourdeaux.

The birds form a much more numerous class than the quadrupeds. To give a complete list of them here is impracticable, as the names of many species are unknown, and the attention of the writer has been too little directed to subjects of natural history. The most obvious, however, shall be mentioned, without attempting any particular description. Domestic fowls, similar to our most common poultry, abound in all parts of the island. Ducks, geese, and turkies are plentiful at the European settlements; but the last are not indigenous, and a sufficient number of them not being reared in the country, a constant supply is imported from the neighbouring continent. The *jungle* fowl is found in great abundance in the woods: it resembles the pheasant, and the flesh of it is of a superior flavour to that of the common fowl. The green pigeon is a beautiful bird, smaller than the usual size of doves, and esteemed a great

delicacy. Snipes are very plentiful, and easily killed. Green paroquets appear in considerable variety. There are also fly-catchers, small partridges, sea-larks, wood-peckers, swallows, and sparrows innumerable. To these may be added the tailor, honey, and *paddee* birds. The lakes and rivers are frequented by a variety of the stork kind, the crane, heron, and pelican. Wild pea-fowls are numerous, as are also kites and vultures. The ingenuity which many of the smaller species of the feathered tribe display in the disposition and construction of their nests often excites admiration. But this subject has been sufficiently illustrated by those writers who have made Indian zoology their particular study. Crows abound everywhere in flocks; and an English officer appositely observed that a certain number of them appeared to be billeted on every house. They are extremely useful to the settlements in removing bones, dead insects, and all sorts of putrid substances; and are never disturbed either by the natives or foreigners.

Of reptiles there is a considerable variety. The lizard species abounds in all its gradations, from the smallest house-lizard, scarce half an inch in length, to the largest alligator, fifteen feet in length, and three feet in diameter. "The house-lizard is the largest animal that can walk in an inverted situation: one of these, eight inches long, and upwards of half an inch in diameter, runs on the ceiling of a room, and in that posture seizes a cockroach with the ut-

most facility. Sometimes, however, on springing too eagerly at its prey, its feet lose their hold, and it falls to the ground*." Lizards of various sizes appear in the evening round every lamp upon the house walls, where they assemble for the purpose of catching flies, which are their constant food. The grass-lizard is in length equal to those which frequent the house, but of a more slender make, greenish colours, and smooth shining skin. The guana is about eighteen inches long, and two inches in diameter. Some of the natives are fond of eating it in curry, which they say it makes of an excellent quality. Both this and the other smaller animals of the lizard species are perfectly harmless. The flying lizard, the blood-sucker, the *manis* or ant-eater, and chameleon, are also found in Ceylon, besides other varieties of this species, with the names of which I am unacquainted. The chameleon is remarkable for the length and elasticity of its tongue, which it darts forthwith surprising quickness, and seizes a fly at the distance of six inches from its mouth. The tongue appears no thicker than a thread, and when directed to its prey moves with instantaneous velocity.

Snakes of various sizes and descriptions are common. Amongst these are the *cobra di capello*, or hooded-snake, the boa, the house-snake, green-snake, and water-snake.

* Marsden's History of Sumatra.

But only the two first are poisonous; and few casualties are occasioned by them. They never bite or attack a man but in self-defence, or when come upon by surprise. During five years residence in the country, I never heard of any person suffering from them. But two dogs belonging to captain Hetzler of the Bengal artillery were killed one day by the bite of a snake, while he was shooting in the woods near Columbo. The largest serpent which I ever saw was eight feet and a half in length, and three inches in diameter: but one of smaller dimensions has been seen to destroy and swallow a hare. Snakes have in their jaws or throat a compressive force, which enables them to devour animals of three or four times their own circumference. Many stories have been told concerning them, which were never heard by any person in the country. The Cingalese, however, positively assert that there is a snake thirty feet in length, and ten inches in diameter: one of which has been taken with a hog in its belly; and in another has been found the horn of a buffalo.

"Of serpents," says Knox, "there are these sorts. The *pimberah*, the body whereof is as big as a man's middle, and the length proportionable. It is not swift, but by subtilty catches its prey; which are deer or other cattle. He lies in the path where the deer use to pass, and as they go, he claps hold of them by a kind of peg that grows on his tail, with which he strikes them. He will swallow a roe-buck whole,

horns and all; so that it happens sometimes the horns run thro' his belly and kill him. A stag was caught by one of these *pimberahs*, which seized him by the buttock, and held him so fast that he could not get away, but ran a few steps this way and that way. An Indian seeing the stag run thus, supposed him in a snare, and having a gun shot him; at which he gave so strong a jerk, that it pulled the serpent's head off, while his tail was encompassing a tree to hold the stag the better.

"Another venomous snake is called *polonga*, the most venomous of all that kill cattle. Two sorts of them I have seen, the one green, the other of a reddish grey, full of white rings along the sides, and about five or six feet long.

"Another poisonous snake is called *noya*, of a greyish colour, about four feet long. This will stand with half his body upright two or three hours together, and spread his head *(hood)* broad open, where there appears like as it were a pair of spectacles painted on it. The Indians call this *noy-rogerati*, that is, a king's snake: it will do no harm. But if the *polonga* and *noya* meet together, they cease not fighting till one hath killed the other.

"The reason and original of this fatal enmity between these two serpents, is this. according to a fable among the *Chingulays*. These two chanced to meet in a dry season, when water was scarce. The *polonga* being almost famished

for thirst, asked the *noya*, where he might go to find a little water. The noya a little before had met with a bowl of water in which a child lay playing: as it is usual among this people to wash their children in a bowl of water, and leave them to tumble and play in it. Here the noya quenched his thirst, but as he was drinking, the child that lay in the bowl, out of his innocency and play, hit him on the head with his hand, which the noya made no matter of, but bore patiently, knowing it was not done out of any malice; and having drunk as much as sufficed him, went away without doing the child any harm. Being minded to direct the polonga to this bowl, but desirous withall to preserve the child, he told him that he knew of water, but that he was such a surly hasty creature, that he was fearful to let him know where it was, lest he might do some mischief. Making him therefore promise that he would not, he then told him, that at such a place there was a bowl of water with a child playing in it, and that probably the child might, as he was tumbling, give him a pat on the head, as he had done to him before, but charged him nevertheless not to hurt the child. Which the polonga having promised went his way towards the water, as the noya had directed him. The noya knowing his touchy disposition, went after him, fearing he might do the child a mischief, and that thereby he himself might be deprived of the like benefit afterwards. It fell out as he feared. For as the polonga

drank, the child patted him on the head, and he in his hasty humour bit him on the hand and killed him. The noya seeing this, was resolved to be revenged; and so reproaching him for his baseness, fought him till he killed him, and after that devoured him. And to this day they always fight when they meet, and the conquerour eats the body of the vanquished. Hence the proverb among the *Chingulayes*, when they see two men irreconcileable, they compare them to the polonga and noya, saying *noya polonga waghe,* that is, like a noya and polonga."

Frogs and toads of the common size abound everywhere, and often enter the houses. In all the swamps they make a prodigious noise, particularly before rain. Scorpions from four to eight inches long, and centipedes of the tribe of scolopendra, of the length of from five to seven inches, are met with frequently in the country, and about the ramparts of the forts. The sting of both is dangerous, although not mortal: but the inhabitants escape their venom with as much good fortune as they do that of the poisonous snakes. All these reptiles seem aware of the abhorrence in which they are held by the human species; and whenever they light by accident on the dwellings of men, they retreat from the scene of danger with so much rapidity, and are generally so successful in finding a place of concealment, that they are rarely caught or destroyed. The diminutive leeches, which are so great an annoyance to travellers in some parts

of the country, are mentioned in an account of one of the excursions of the British troops into the Candian territories, in the second volume of this work. Land-tortoises are frequently met with.

Insects abound in the island in great variety. The beetle kind is numerous. Of the butterfly there are twenty species. The grasshoppers are extremely curious. Some resemble branches of a tree; some pieces of straw joined awkwardly together: of others the wings are so perfectly of the form of a leaf, that, when preserved, a person who has not seen them alive can hardly credit that they ever belonged to a living creature. Of spiders there are many of immense size. One with legs four inches long, and the body covered with thick black hair, is said to be poisonous in its bite, but fortunately is rare. Common flies, bees, moschettos, fire-flies, cockroaches, bugs, ground-lice, and ticks, are numerous. Every species of the ant swarms in countless multitudes. The white ant, or termes, is the most destructive. Of the formica, according to Marsden, the following distinctions are the most obvious. The *great red* ant, about three fourths of an inch long: it bites severely, is found mostly on trees and bushes, and forms its nest by fastening together, with a glutinous matter, a collection of the leaves of a bough, as they grow. The *common red* ant, resembling our pismire. The *minute red* ant, much smaller than the former. There are also the *large black* ant: the

common black ant, and the *minute black* ant. The common red ant is the most abundant in houses; and many millions of that species inhabit every house in Ceylon. They lodge within the walls, and are seen in every corner where any species of food is to be procured. If a bit of sugar or any other eatable article is dropped on the floor, it is almost instantly covered with them. If the article can be divided, each one carries off as much as it is able; if not, they unite their exertions to move it away bodily. It is very common to see a swarm of them drawing along a dead cockroach upwards of an inch in length and half an inch in breadth, which is equal in bulk to several hundreds of them. They even attack this animal while alive; which being thrown on its back in struggling for its liberty is irrecoverably lost, and torn to pieces limb by limb. "Each species of ant," as Marsden correctly observes, "is a declared enemy of the other, and never suffers a divided empire. Where one party effects a settlement, the other is expelled; and in general they are powerful in proportion to their bulk; except the white ant, which is beaten from the field by others of inferior size; and for this reason it is a common expedient to strew sugar on the floor of a warehouse, in order to allure the formicæ to the spot, who do not fail to combat and overcome the ravaging but unwarlike termetes."

The common house ants always follow one another in a line, one by one. They generally descend perpendicularly

from the top of the wall to the floor; but if any obstacle comes in their way, they alter that direction: even a moistened finger drawn across the line makes them instantly change their course. Every article of provisions, which is kept in store-rooms and pantries, must be guarded against these insects; and to preserve the common necessaries of life from being invaded by them, constant attention is required on the part of the servants. Even if a loaf of bread is laid carelessly down for a few minutes, the heart of it will be found full of them. To keep them off, a dish is filled with water, an inverted cup immersed in it, and the plate, which holds the bread, placed on the top of it. For the same purpose the feet of stands, as well as the pillars of bedsteads, are set in vessels of a particular construction, made of tin, wood, or granate. The part on which the post rests is dry, and a cavity round it is filled with water. A sieve for holding meat is sometimes suspended by a rope, which being rubbed over with tar, prevents the approach of those troublesome vermin. A tub of sugar is hung up in the same manner. Tea is an article which the ants never touch.

The climate of India affords a favourable opportunity for watching the transformations of the caterpillar. I laid by me a few butterfly's eggs, about the size of pins' heads, sticking to a leaf, that I might observe the progress of the insect through all its stages. It was that commonly called

the milk-hedge caterpillar. On the day of its birth it scarcely measured one-tenth of an inch in length: but being supplied daily with fresh leaves, it grew quickly. After twelve days it measured nearly one inch in length, the breadth increasing in the same proportion; and in five days more it measured one inch and a half; at which time it had attained its full growth. It then stripped off its skin with a great deal of labour, its body twisting about, all the time, in curious contortions. The head was first disengaged, and the skin gradually drawn down to the tail, where it lay like an useless garment. The animal then appeared a hard, inflexible shell, or egg, of a white pearly colour, with a ring like bright gold round one end of it, which stuck to a piece of paper by a short sting, or natural pin. The shell was upwards of half an inch in length, and appeared rather broader than the caterpillar in its living state. Some time afterwards (it had been neglected to note the number of days), as it was lying on the breakfast table, the shell burst, and a beautiful butterfly stepped out of it. The centre of the four wings was orange colour: the edges black, with white spots: the head and upper half of the body like the latter: the lower half, or abdomen, of the former colour. From the tip of one of the longer wings to that of the other it measured three inches and three tenths. It had two horns, each extending upwards of half an inch, swelling towards the tips, and pointed like spears. Another more

curious caterpillar lived in my possession several days, and eat almost constantly of the leaves of the gum tree, called by some the foolish tree. It has six fangs to assist its mouth in eating; and its appearance altogether is very singular. The back is divided into various eminences of a pyramidical form, with long hairs projecting from them. After being a whole day without looking at it, I found it wrapped carefully up in leaves, and covered with a substance resembling cotton. In the centre of this was discovered a dark brown shell marked with circular wrinkles: but the fly escaped from it without being observed.

All the shells peculiar to Ceylon are mentioned in Rumphius's work on conchology. The fishes are the same as those found in other parts of the Indian seas. But few of them are equal in flavour or delicacy to those which inhabit colder climates. Some species of fish are caught in the lakes and rivers. These are generally of a small size: but many of those of the ocean are larger than cod or salmon. The most common are seer-fish, cockup, pomfret, sole, whiting, small skate, mullet; to which may be added turtles, prawns, shrimps, and oysters. There are likewise seen sometimes on the coast, the bonetto, albicore, dolphin, flying fish, porpoise, and shark.

Little round shells, of the size and form of peppermint drops, are found lying perfectly dry and inanimate on the sea side. But soon after being immersed in vinegar, they

shew signs of life, and move along a smooth plate from one side to the other.

A palanquin bearer brought me, one day at Columbo, a piece of fresh bamboo, which he found floating in the sea. It was about six feet long, and covered with probably upwards of a million of small bivalve shell-fish, all of one species. It is of the form of a heart, half an inch in length, opening at one side, of a white colour, with a yellow edge. The broad end of it is fastened to the bamboo by a brown soft ligament, which partakes of life and sensation. The little animal, which made its appearance without the shell, is of the form of a lobster. All of them were perfectly alive and playing in the air in full vigour, though, no doubt, suffering distress on account of being removed from their native element.

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